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CLASSICS OF AMERICAN LIBRARIANSHIP

THE LIBRARY WITHIN THE WALLS

Classics of American Librarianship

Edited by ARTHUR E. BOSTWICK, Ph.D.

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Classics of American Librarianship

EDITED BY ARTHUR E. BOSTWICK, PH.D.

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Library Science

THE LIBRARY WITHIN THE WALLS

REPRINTS OF ARTICLES AND ADDRESSES

SELECTED AND ANNOTATED BY
KATHARINE TWINING MOODY
Chief of the Reference Department
St. Louis Public Library

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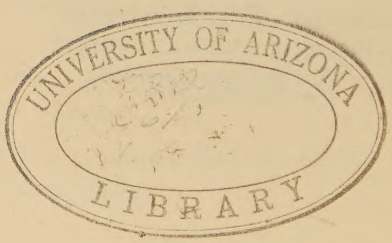

PREFACE

From its accustomed place in Dr. Samuel McChord Crothers's book, *The Gentle Reader,* is diverted to this page a delightful paragraph in the author's usual graceful phraseology. Unfortunately for the profession, Dr. Crothers was not a librarian in the accepted sense of the term. Had he belonged to an earlier generation the library profession might have claimed him; however, he cannot be dissociated from books and the cultural intent of libraries.

> Of all the devices for promoting a good understanding the old-fashioned Preface was the most excellent. It was not an introduction to the subject; its purpose was personal. In these days the Preface, where it survives, is reduced to the smallest possible space. It is like the platform of an electric car which affords the passenger a precarious foothold while he strives to obey the stern demand of the conductor that he move forward. But time was when the Preface was the broad hospitable porch on which the Author and Reader sat for an hour or so and talked over the enterprise that was before them. Sometimes they would talk so long that they almost forgot their ostensible subject.

Not unmindful of the opportunity for further digression, a simple statement of facts must suffice in introduction to the present volume in the series of *Classics of American Librarianship.* To this volume has been assigned a comprehensive title—*The Library Within the Walls.* Interpretation of this title, however, at once suggests the library as a depository, and leads to the more or less obvious designation of a sphere for library enterprise in contradistinction to the use of books for home reading—one confined to what is popularly known as "reference use" of books and other library facilities

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—magazine and newspaper reading-rooms, assembly-halls and exhibits. This does not narrow the field to public libraries, but admits university, state and the various special collections.

Prevailing conditions have created another division of reference service, since the present-day patrons of a library, with increasing frequency, project themselves by means of the United States mail, the telephone and the telegraph, asking assistance. This distant consultation, which ultimately may involve the radio, does not alter the main line of differentiation, nor does occasional variation from the plan that reference books are reserved for use within the walls conflict with the general arrangement of service.

KATHARINE TWINING MOODY

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TEXT

As a text for this volume has been chosen the following quotation from George Bernard Shaw. It was taken from an article entitled *Neglected Aspects of Public Libraries,* in *The New Republic,* December 21, 1921.

The importance of public libraries can hardly be exaggerated; yet it is seldom apparent to that most influential but most disastrous of public councillors, the practical man of business. He is revolted by the spectacle of a pretentious building, and a huge and costly collection of books, with seating accommodation for from fifty to two hundred people, and one solitary reader who is not even fashionably dressed. What wicked waste it seems! And yet to anyone who knows, that solitary man is a far more satisfactory spectacle than a crowd of young persons devouring the latest Tarzan. A crowded public library is an absurdity, like a crowded laboratory or observatory. The people who clamor for it are clamoring for something very different: to wit, a crowded popular reading-room. I have nothing to say against reading-rooms any more than against sleeping rooms (most reading-rooms contrive the double debt to pay); but I must insist that a reading-room is not in the classic sense a library. A library is a place in which makers of books work: a reading-room is a space in which ordinary men and women pass the time by reading books, just as they do in railway carriages. The purpose of the reading-room is to enable people of moderate means to share books as they share a towel on a rolling pin, and thus to read fifty novels at the cost of one. The purpose of a library is to enable poor scholars and men of letters, whose traditional lot is "toil, envy, want, the patron and the gaol" to consult books which are storehouses of learning, books which they can no more afford to buy than a chemist can afford to buy a pound of radium. Such men form a very small percentage, or even permillage, of the

population; but the quality of the books in the reading-room, which means the quality of the taste of the readers, depends finally on the library and on the unfashionably dressed man who may often be its sole occupant. The debt of British literature, and indeed of every department of British culture, to the British Museum Library is incalculable. I myself worked in its reading-room daily for about eight years at the beginning of my literary career; and oh (if I may quote Wordsworth) the difference to me! And that difference was a difference to all the readers of my books and of my contributions to journalism, as well as to all the spectators of my plays: say, to be excessively cautious, not less than a million people.

It is not necessary to go into the question whether the effect on all these people has been for good or evil. It may be that it would have been better for myself and them if I had never been born. But that is neither here nor there for the present point, which is, that the work done in the world by the library cannot be measured by the number of people visibly seated in it. I will go so far as to say that if a public library did not attract even one reader from the outside, its existence would be justified by the presence of its librarian and his official staff. And it never comes quite to that. There are always two or three readers to keep the place in countenance. And if (to take actual cases) one of them is a Carlyle and another a Karl Marx, the results may range from the extension of the English Factory Code throughout the whole modern world, to a European war and half a dozen revolutions. This may seem a questionable recommendation; but as long as people are impressed only by sensational events like wars and revolutions, and take unmixed benefactions thanklessly as a matter of course, it would be useless to cite the many library workers on whose influence there is no stain of blood. From Plato and Pythagoras to Descartes and Einstein there have been single men who would have justified all that the British Museum costs by spending one week of their lives in it.

REFERENCE SERVICE IN THEORY AND PRACTICE

Technically a reference book is one which has been reserved for reference use, and which is so designated in the catalogue. To the public at large a reference work is usually any book which the reader desires to use within the building, and, in spite of restrictions, one to be taken away at his pleasure.

The public on the whole has the right view of the use of the collection, since any book or possession of the library is a part of the resources of the institution available for reference purposes.

In point of fact every division of the classification, fiction, poetry, history, science, children's literature,—any desired thing, which happens to be within the walls of the building at the moment, is subject to call by the reference department of a library. The staff must, of necessity, be as well acquainted with the circulating collection as with those volumes upon which, for some reason, size, shape, rarity or nature, the added dignity of "Reference" has been conferred.

The experienced library worker with an analytical mind is fully aware that a mental analysis, however rapid the process, must take place before the solution of any problem is attempted. On the principle of the old game "Twenty Questions" the worker asks, "Is it animal, vegetable or mineral?" The skillful research worker confronted by a subject strange to his experience, should be able, through this instant mental process, to decide upon the line along which the inquiry may be satisfactorily solved. The resources of the library will be visualized and challenged in the mind of the worker,

who thus is led directly to the most conspicuously probable group of books, or to such mechanical aids as indexes, bibliographies and catalogues, or, these failing, to an appeal to some personal authority. Serious methods of research are not to be confused with an agile reaching for a definite listed volume.

THE THEORY OF REFERENCE WORK

Two introductory articles, elucidating the basic principles upon which a library service for students should function, are the work of Mr. William Warner Bishop, librarian of the University of Michigan. His discerning presentation of the essentials of such service may be ascribed to the fact that he has approached his subject after a general and specific experience in research work, gained in different types of libraries.

A biographical sketch of Mr. Bishop appears in Volume IV of this series, *The Library and its Organization.*

One of the commonest phenomena in the growth of a language is the unconscious development of technical phrases. Words which have a plain and ordinary meaning, universally understood and used, are given a special turn or a peculiar import in some locality or in some occupation. In a highly developed form of civilization in which communication is rapid and intercourse constant such special and peculiar meanings spread quickly and become current before people are aware either of the fact or the process. Every calling and profession has its own jargon, perfectly intelligible to the initiate, though but half understood by the rest of the world. And in a singularly democratic country, one in which governmental decrees fixing nomenclature are practically unknown (for the reason that the central government has no concern with local matters) the jargon of a trade or a profession may become fixed without any particular attention from anyone. Coined words, as the verbs "to accession," "to shelf-list," are in all conscience bad enough, but chief of the startling and novel crop of new phrases in our calling is the term "reference librarian."

To the curious I commend the task of tracing in the library press and in library reports the history of this

designation. It would make a good subject for a seminar paper. But whatever its history, the term has arrived. It meets me in half a dozen letters a day. I find persons signing themselves "reference librarian" writing from colleges and universities, from public libraries, from endowed research libraries, from state and governmental libraries. These libraries are large and small, general and special, but they all have a person styled a "reference librarian," and in their reports we will find paragraphs on "reference" work, "reference" books, "reference" rooms, and so on. But a study of the functions performed by these persons and in these departments leaves me with the impression that the terms are used rather loosely, that the duties performed by "reference workers" are by no means the same in all libraries. Observation also leads me to believe that the term covers functions ranging from the practical control of all the relations with the public (in certain non-circulating libraries) down to the mere task of keeping order in a college study room. Before beginning any discussion of reference work, then, there is need, even among librarians, for a certain amount of definition.

Reference work, as defined in this paper, is the service rendered by a librarian *in aid* of some sort of study. It is not the study itself—that is done by the reader. Reference work is ordinarily distinguished from circulation work in libraries, although reference work may, and often does, lead to the sort of circulation librarians profess an ardent desire to further. The help given to a reader engaged in research of any sort is what we mean by reference work. It may be aid of the most trivial sort, as in the finding of a name in a city directory, or of the most elaborate character, as the preparation of extensive lists of references such as those printed by the Division of Bibliography in the Library of Congress, or by the New York Public Library. But it is primarily help given to a reader, not performance of the reader's task. Reference work, then, is in aid of research, but it is not research itself.

"Reference" librarians, it should follow, are employees assigned to the task of assisting readers in the prosecution of their studies. They are the interpreters of the library to the public. The books are here on the shelves; the

machinery of library operation (catalogs, files and what not) is ready; here are readers, each with his own need. But without some one to help a little, to explain, to suggest, to direct, the right book, the right article does not always fall into the reader's hands. The expert and the tyro alike bring their difficulties to the man who can help them with his knowledge—*not* of the topic, but of the machinery. He is not, he cannot be an expert in many and various fields. But he does know books and library methods. He can refer people to the right place in the catalog, the proper section of the shelves; he is able to solve baffling puzzles in the way of abbreviated or incomplete titles, and he knows more than a little of what books his library owns. He is the interpreter of the library to readers, revealing not that which he himself has created, but that which has been gathered, arranged, listed, labeled and shelved against their needs. The reference librarian has always existed. It is only of recent years that division of labor has given him a name—without his knowledge or consent, as for the most part names are wont to be bestowed.

"Reference books," too, have taken on a new and dubious meaning. Formerly the term was restricted to works of an encyclopædic character, to books of ready reference. Dictionaries, almanacs, catalogs, cyclopædias, compendia, were reference books. Now (in libraries) to these have been added all other books placed in reading rooms with the view of keeping them there for the convenience of readers. Reference books we generally hold to mean books in the reference rooms, or reading rooms, which are not ordinarily subject to circulation. Other books to which the old definition applies and which may not be in the reference rooms still receive the old designation. Bayle's Dictionary, for example, would doubtless be considered a reference book even by the ruthless modernist who consigns it to the stack and never revels in the spicy anecdotes, the keen thrusts of its heretical author. I find also (not among librarians) a disposition to term "reference" books *any* books to which reference is made in syllabi and reading lists. Time and again I have seen letters asking about "reference" books, which proved to be very ordinary and commonplace textbooks, or monographs. To librarians, however, the term

doubtless conveys its old meaning of compends for quick consultation and has come to include also such other books as experience has placed at the convenience of reference workers and readers in reading rooms.

The modern extension of this word reference is further seen in the phrases "reference rooms" and "reference library." These are set over against circulation departments and lending libraries. As a rule, it is the smaller libraries which use the term "reference room," or "reference department." The larger libraries, which subdivide their work in aid of readers, are more likely to use the term "reading rooms," particularly as they probably have half a dozen departments for specialized aid of research. A technical reading and study room, for instance, is not ordinarily referred to as a "reference room," but as a "department of technology." "Reference libraries" are a group apart. Their function is primarily the aid of specialized, of advanced research. Considering the great number of libraries and the money spent on them in America, the group is a very small one as yet, but as notable as it is small. There is, moreover, small question as to the meaning of the word when applied to them. Reference in their case spells research.

Whether or no these definitions find common acceptance, there can be no question as to one fact which confronts anyone planning reference work for any particular library. Most of our libraries are open twelve to fourteen hours daily, and for a short period on Sunday. The average library employee is not present more than eight hours a day. Obviously this means, save in very small libraries, a certain duplication of force and division of labor in the reference work. This at once implies a certain amount of organization and planning in its conduct. The mere assignment of a probably suitable person to the reference desk is of course not enough. There must be some continuity in the work, some assurance that the man coming at night will get as good service as the man who came in the morning. In other words reference work demands a policy on the part of the librarian, a definite plan as to what is expected from it, and the means to be applied toward it. Even if it has grown up of itself after its own fashion, the very success it has

achieved requires a careful analysis and a plan for continuation. We have given great attention to buying books, to cataloging and classifying them, to building up circulation, to bringing the books home to the people, to providing buildings. The reference work demands the same sort of care and thought.

Another very obvious fact is that no one person can possibly have special knowledge of the wide variety of subjects on which libraries have books. It is almost inevitable that, even in a library of moderate size, some one else than the reference librarian may be the best person to assist a particular inquirer. In a large library in which specialists are necessarily gathered, it is highly probable that the special department, or the specialist in some department, rather than the reference librarian, should attend to his need. The reader "is entitled to the best aid in the library's staff." Thus on any theory of reference work, the reference librarian is bound by a self-denying ordinance. Not his service merely, but the best service, he is to put at the reader's disposal. He is to be a guide not alone to the books, but to the library's resources in personnel. This principle also presupposes a policy on the part of the library as a whole toward the reference work.

That policy will differ according to the nature of the demands made upon the library and the extent of its resources. There are, speaking very broadly, three sorts of demands in ordinary reference work, the inquiry for historico-literary information of every sort, the inquiry about present-day conditions in social and economic fields, and the inquiry in special fields of knowledge, such as technical chemistry or electricity, or law. The historic (or antiquarian) demand is the most familiar and probably the most frequent in large libraries; the social (contemporary) demand is the most insistent and difficult to satisfy; the technical demand (when serious) is usually made in a technical library, or by a person already trained who is capable of handling for himself the technical books. Now the general library is usually either strong in history, literature and the arts, or strong in statistics, documents and sociology. It is seldom so evenly developed (for whatever reason—many will occur to you at once) in all fields that none has a preponderance.

The equipment and training of the reference workers should, it would seem, reflect the strongest side of the library's collections, at least up to the point where those collections require the services of specialists. For example, suppose a library has a good collection of music which is growing rapidly as a result of an endowment. Ultimately it will need a specialist in musical literature in charge of the collection. Until the time comes for him, however, it would be folly not to have some one on the reference staff—or at least available for reference work—who knows more than a little of music and its literature.

But if the reference librarian is not to absorb inquiries at the reference desk, if he is properly to consider himself an introducer of readers to the person best able to assist them, he is also required by this very obligation to sift inquiries, to discover those, for instance, which can be answered by means of the World's Almanac, or Who's Who, and to prevent them going past him to bother and annoy busy folk. We have at the Library of Congress a department of Semitics. But we have learned in the Reading Room to spot the young Egyptians and Syrians who wish to read the files of our one Arabic illustrated magazine, and not to let them get past the Reading Room desk to the Semitic Department. If the question can be handled with reasonable ease and celerity by the reference force, it should remain with them. Tact, the ability to single out the actual thing wanted in the haze of the first questions, a good memory, knowledge of catalogs and of classifications, are the prime requisites in a "reference" librarian. Added to them must be—as indicated above—an acquaintance with some field in which the library is particularly strong, and in which there is a persistent demand. Experience, too, counts for more in reference work than almost any other factor, particularly experience in the library in which the work is done. Time and again I have seen reference workers made wise by long years of training handle with consummate ease and success an inquiry which had baffled inexperienced folk of excellent, even superior, training. The acquaintance with the library's resources, which comes from living in it, the knowledge of how similar questions were met before, the curious ability to sense the real point at issue, are assets which come with time alone.

We shall not attempt in this paper to take up the practical matters of *how* such reference librarians shall perform their manifold and varied duties. The topic is the *theory* of reference work, which involves of course the attitude of the library toward it, and the qualifications of those engaged in it, as well as the preliminary discussion of its nature. But the tools of the reference worker and his quarters we may properly include within the theory of his work. Whether the force be large or small, whether the work be general or special, the reference librarian must have some special place to work in and some things to work with. (I have seen both fundamentals totally ignored.)

To begin with his tools. In a general sense the entire reference collection is for his use in aiding readers, but it is the books and apparatus which he uses personally with great frequency that more immediately concern us. These should be near at hand where they can be reached with little motion. No matter what his particular line of work, there are sure to develop lists and bibliographies, memoranda and notes. Some sort of record is naturally kept of particularly difficult and puzzling inquiries. He will need a vertical file for all these, and if the demand is for ephemeral publications on questions of the hour and the place is strong, his vertical file is likely to grow to large dimensions. He will need as many works of quick reference as he can get about him, dictionaries, indexes, compends of statistics, recent bibliographies, directories and so on. These are his first aids, his emergency tools.

His next line of help is not so often the general collection of reference books as it is the catalog of the library. If that instrument is at all well made, it is the natural resort of the reference librarian in almost all his emergencies. He probably will know it more thoroughly than anyone except the filers. It would seem almost a necessity that he should not be placed far from it, and yet we have all seen reference rooms remote from the public catalog, even on separate floors.

Then come the reference books in the reference room, open to readers freely, and distinctly for their use, but in a peculiar sense also the tools of the reference librarian. Reference collections should be made with local ends in

view. While one may with safety and wisdom foresee a demand and provide reference books for it, the bulk of the reference books should be such as experience shows to be needed in that particular place. Because a book is very useful in some large library, it is by no means certain that it will prove an equally valuable reference aid in a small town library or in a special library. Reference collections, moreover, should contain a certain number of duplicates. Experience will show what they shall be. My plea is that the reference collection should be made up strictly in accordance with local needs, guided by the reference librarian's observations and his knowledge of the demand. It goes without saying that it will require constant and drastic revision.

Such are the tools of the trade. How should they be housed? No details can be given, but certain principles may be at least mentioned. The reference room must be near the public catalog; it must not be remote from the book stacks. There should be (even in small libraries) some provision for privacy of consultation when necessary. It is extremely difficult to have no place to take an embarrassed inquirer, no place to consult on what may be very important matters other than the open reference room. Some study rooms where groups can work adjacent to the main reference room seem also a necessity. Debaters and clubs we are likely to have with us for some time to come. Further details are matters of the individual building.

Assuming, then, that we are agreed that reference work is organized effort on the part of libraries in aid of the most expeditious and fruitful use of their books, under comfortable housing conditions, we may safely inquire whether its possibilities have been explored, its limits reached. Have we yet done all that can be done properly to exploit the books in our libraries, to develop their use to the utmost? Is it not true that we are but beginning to see the possibilities of useful service which can be rendered to the community, not alone by the existence of rich collections, of carefully selected libraries, but by the trained and organized force which interprets them? Is it not imperative that we abandon (if we have ever held) the passive attitude, politely responsive to demands, but creating

none? Consider for a moment the attitude of the so-called "special" library toward its clients. Because of their high intelligence in some special field, of their keen interest in the literature of their calling, the clients of such a library demand and secure high-grade service within that field, a service which generally sets itself no limits of time or effort on behalf of its readers. Zeal in such a library does not degenerate into officiousness, nor does proper reserve become indifference. The librarians of a scientific laboratory, of an insurance company, of a research institute know their limited clientele, anticipate their wants, respond to their calls, serve intelligently, and therefore successfully.

Even so, general libraries may perhaps establish a relation of intimacy with at least certain sections or classes of their larger community. By a study of its component parts, of its social organization, there have already been found in many cities possibilities of helpful aid to many classes of readers who ordinarily came but seldom to any library. Such a study of a town or city one supposes every librarian makes in a general way. But the reference workers in large and small public libraries are under special obligation to consider not only those daily demands which custom and training bring to their desks, but all those latent chances of usefulness which lie too frequently undreamt of about them. Why buy certain classes of books? Why keep other classes? Who can use this sort, and who that? Why not develop a certain subject for a certain need, even if it be hitherto unvoiced? Why not spend on the study of the possible and actual use of books some of the energy shown in selecting fiction and reading reviews? In other words, why not exploit intelligently and successfully the non-recreative side of library work, building up stores of books against a future need, gathering ephemeral material for the day?

The possibilities of reference work in reference libraries are, I believe, but dimly seen as yet. Judging from our foremost examples, one might say that the keynote is specialization, either by way of departments within a general library, as the New York Public Library, or by limiting the field of the library itself, as in the John Crerar Library, or the John Carter Brown Library. But specialization means planning for the student, the investigator, fully as

much as for the librarian assigned to the care of a department. It means a policy of acquisition in special fields, a development of a special clientele, a specialized service which can create a demand as well as supply one. The mere library specialist, who sits in a room and gathers books about him, performs a service of a certain sort, it is true. But the specialist in American history, in prints, in maps, in music, in physics, in law, in statistics, who keeps in touch with the men of his sort throughout the world, who knows them, knows what is going on, contributes his mite, brings them eagerly about him, fills a vastly more important post. We have men of this sort, and we shall have more of them as our libraries grow. They are alive. They are the true reference workers, whatever their official nomenclature.

And the general "reference librarian," the man who is compelled to be all things to all men, who, counting nothing and no one trivial, spends his days opening up to the miscellaneous public the stores of the library's books, what of him? He sends the interesting inquiry on to the specialist; he passes on the interesting man to another head of department; he greets generations of students in high schools, colleges, normal schools, technical schools; he helps out the hurried newspaper man hunting desperately for a portrait or a biography of some one sprung into fame between editions; he sets the aspiring Daughter of the American Revolution on the track of a new bar; here he averts a difficulty, there he smooths down an irate reader with too often a just grievance; he is an interpreter, revealing to inquirers what the library has; he is a lubricant, making the wheels run noiselessly and well. Little glory and less reputation accrue to him. He counts his days' work done well, but sees no tally of so many thousand books bought or other thousands cataloged. At his best scholars use him, like him, thank him. At his lowest ebb no one considers him save as a useful part of the machinery. This is the theory of his work—service, quiet, self-effacing, but not passive or unheeding. To make books useful and more used—this is his aim. This aim and this theory are alike honored in any gathering of librarians.

THE AMOUNT OF HELP TO BE GIVEN TO READERS

It is my desire to set forth in this paper a practical problem of reference work which confronts every reference librarian and his chief in planning the work of a university or research library. We exist for readers. How much help can we give them without going beyond the limits of common sense and of our appropriations, without becoming private secretaries or private tutors?

How much help do readers need? Our university libraries, (and our public libraries, too, for that matter), discover the utmost variety in the preparedness of readers to use the facilities the libraries offer. The freshman—and occasionally the senior—who knows nothing of how to use a library, who requests something to help "get up Professor X.'s exam.," who "has a theme to write on the sunrise and wants a book on it, don't you know," rubs elbows with the professor who comes in to inquire whether Herr Dr. Syntax of Tübingen ever published a treatise on the Homeric Digamma, or whether you can't find out for him what was the amount of the cotton crop in Oklahoma last fall, for—"It isn't anything I've been able to lay hands on."

To illustrate the extremes of ability to use a library, let me relate two experiences of my own: I well remember my first encounter with a card catalog. It was at the University of Michigan, and too long ago for me to count the years with comfort, and too few with pride. I had haunted the Detroit public library for years, and knew every nook and corner of it—but I had never seen, much less used, a card catalog. I went into the University library in the evening to pass away a couple of hours. I wanted a book—any book—and I was coldly referred to a case of double-tray drawers where little cards were arranged—by authors. I remember to this day turning those cards. Being a methodical soul even then I had begun with A, and

Aristotle was the first author I happened on. Do you wonder that I turned away from that oak case in which the first card written west of Cambridge was even then said to repose, and went out of that library, utterly discouraged? There were no open shelves then, save for a few dictionaries, etc. and no reference librarian, and the "student assistant" on duty that night saw in me only a freshman who wanted to idle away time. I submit there was room for assistance in this case. The book-worm in me couldn't be downed, even by Aristotle, and yet I remember many a time after that, when I had become thoroughly familiar with the use of the catalog, turning over the author cards at random to find something to read when I was tired or had an hour to spare. A selection of good literature on open shelves is an assistance to readers at a formative period which no university or college library can afford to forego. The more books the student can see and handle the better. They are worth more than catalogs, bibliographies, yes,—and the reference librarian!

A few days since I watched a famous scholar at work in the Library of Congress. He evidently had a point of bibliography to settle. He scanned our card catalog, making rapid notes of call-numbers. He took down volume after volume of the British museum catalogue, making copious notes while his books were being gathered. For two hours he opened volumes, rejected some, kept others; renewed his search, again made notes, and then left as quietly as he came. He had used over 100 books, had consulted half a thousand entries, I am sure, and had needed no assistance save once when a book was not produced because of an error—on our part, I regret to say. Under his skilful hands our bibliographic tools worked with the precision of a well-oiled engine. It was an inspiring sight to see the rapidity, the ease, the accuracy with which he went from step to step in his investigations, the assuredness with which he jotted down his final note and went out. That task was done. What assistance did he need from us? Merely the careful doing of our routine duties.

The two cases are not absolutely analogous, for I was seeking a book to read for recreation—the scholar was in search of a definite title; but I should have been equally at sea, I am sure, in trying to find a book on any given subject.

Between those persons, then, who are practically helpless in the face of ordinary library machinery, and those to whom our devices for registering books are useful and easily handled tools, lies the whole world of readers in the kind of libraries with which this section is concerned.

Is the ability to use books and to use libraries an end to be consciously sought in our universities and colleges? At present if a student acquires much facility in these lines it is safe to say that this ability is a by-product of other work, rather than the result of intentional study or instruction. It is well known that in the smaller colleges there is a good deal of efficient work now being done in teaching students to use the library. In the larger libraries where the need for training is greatest, instruction is, ordinarily, wanting. We ought to be able to assume that freshmen have learned in their preparatory school days how to consult a card catalog, how to make out an intelligent call for books, how to use "Poole's Index," and what encyclopedias and bibliographies are for. This is but little in the way of equipment for serious study in a university or research library, but the want of just such an equipment on the part of students and of readers in a public research library, confines much of the work of assistance to most elementary first aid to the injured. I fear our experience is that the average freshman needs help in doing almost any one of the simple acts just mentioned.

This being so, is it not possible in our larger colleges and universities to impart in some formal manner this elementary training, and to go beyond to the regions of co-operative indices, card indices, great library catalogs, and so on? I see very little that leads me to think this will soon come about. We have heard much talk of "professors of books," of "instruction in bibliography," and so forth, for many years, but I fear that the art of using large collections of books must still be learned by the hard way of experience, rather than be taught in classes. There seems no good reason why it should not be taught formally, nor why the work should not be thorough and hard enough to count toward a degree. At Princeton, where the new "preceptorial system" has been heralded as furnishing the long desired "professors of books and reading," I knew but one preceptor who systematically trained his men in using bibliographies

or catalogs. Most of them saw to it that the students read diligently, and probably mastered, a small number of works which were reserved at the desk, but they conspicuously failed to train them in the use of indices, catalogs and bibliographies.

If then, we find ourselves confronted with this lack of training in the methods of using the library, how far can we go in supplying this want in the midst of our routine work? It is evident that we must try to get students, and other readers, in the habit of using ordinary helps, but first it is pertinent to ask what they do when they are puzzled.

At this point I might close this paper, and we could devote an hour to telling the experiences which we all have had in arriving at that most elusive object of inquiry—the thing a reader really wants to know about. The chief art of a desk assistant or a reference librarian is—as we all know—the knack of divining by long experience what is actually wanted by inquirers. The fact that so few readers will ask directly for what they want, even when they have a clear idea of their needs—which is seldom the case—is perhaps a greater obstacle to successful reference work than poor equipment, poor catalogs, few bibliographies. But granted that the task is not easy, where does it as a rule begin? What is the point of contact between reader and library?

Most readers will ask questions at the loan desk. We might as well make up our minds to that fact. No matter how elaborate the machinery provided for their assistance elsewhere, they will persist in asking for aid from the people they know, and with whose ways they are familiar, rather than walk twenty-five feet and ask a question of someone who is busily engaged behind an unfamiliar desk which in many cases bears a strange sign. We all do it. Don't we ask the gate-keeper or the policeman in a railroad station our bothersome questions rather than walk to the conspicuously labelled "Bureau of information"? Shall we demand and expect an inquiring soul to seek out in the library the proper place and persons to whom to put his questions? Granted then that most inquiries in any library which circulates books will originate at the loan desk, how shall we make sure that the questions are properly answered and the inquirers directed to the right person?

It is imperative, I take it, in order to bring this result about, that the reference librarian should be in close touch and on the most cordial terms with the loan desk assistants. I will not go into the question as to whether he should exercise an actual control of assignments and of the loan desk work generally, though I think the work would benefit by such control. But if the assistants are to receive most of the inquiries, as they will anyhow, it is most important that the man who must be finally responsible for the assistance to be given should know how the questions are met and what amount of aid is attempted at the desk. It is most important also that the desk attendants do not attempt to do too much themselves; that they shall, on the one hand, turn over to the reference librarian inquiries involving much time, and, on the other hand, that they shall direct the inquirer to the catalog and similar helps. We are all agreed that the desk attendant ought to be a compound of the manly and polite virtues. But if we urge on him the value of politeness and unwearying zeal we may often find him overdoing the part. I have seen a good deal of this excess of effort to aid readers. I have not infrequently seen desk assistants drop everything to look up books for readers in the catalog with no thought that they were unwisely doing the reader's proper work for him. The poise and balanced judgment of the true teacher, who remembers that his business is, as has been well said, "to make himself useless," would be a great desideratum in a desk attendant. I don't suppose that we shall get this for the salaries we usually pay for these positions, but we can at least get the careful supervision and counsel of reference librarian and chief of the circulation work. It is worth while, perhaps, to add that an excess of zeal frequently develops the habit in desk assistants and others, of spending an inordinate amount of time on one reader. It requires a pretty firm hand, and good judgment to keep eager assistants, full of the desire to help, within reasonable bounds, without at the same time discouraging the assistant's spirit of helpfulness; but someone must, as a rule, do this, if the work is not to suffer seriously.

If the library is at all large, it is frequently helpful to have a small leaflet printed to explain the methods of securing books. Most libraries give on such leaflets or cards, merely the rules and regulations with some descriptive

matter. If I may again be permitted a personal experience, let me tell how I was taught to use a card catalog. The Student's Christian association at Michigan used to print a "Students' handbook," full of most sage and excellent counsel for a newcomer. In the one I was given when I entered college I found a couple of paragraphs headed, if my memory serves me, "How to draw a book." The whole process was described—the catalogs and what they are for; the cabalistic shelf numbers, and where they were found on the cards. I read that these numbers were always in pencil and were in the upper left-hand corner of author cards only. If you found a book under a subject heading, you must look up the corresponding author card to get the number before presenting your slip at the delivery desk; and it was impressed on me that this number must be on the slip. I don't know who wrote that lucid and detailed explanation, but I do know that I never had any trouble in getting a book at the desk after I had mastered it. If we could once get all our readers inoculated with the call number germ, we could dispense with about half our cares in desk and reference work. I submit that such a detailed explanation of the *modus operandi* of securing a book would do no harm to the man who already knows the process, and would be of very great assistance to those who don't know just what to do. I would make the leaflet, or whatever you choose to print, compact, but most explicit, and I think it would be more useful than any statement as to the scope and extent of the library's collections.

Suppose then that we have in some manner tided our inquirer over the early difficulties which are the result of inexperience, and suppose that he is aware of the existence of the card catalog; there arises another question of serious import. Can a card catalog ever be made self-interpreting? We librarians have apparently proceeded for years on the theory that it can. We have busied ourselves about "evaluations" and descriptive notes, about headings and author entries with the "public" ever in mind, and on our tongues. I here and now humbly confess to having been party thereto; I can even say *quorum pars magna fui.* But I have my very serious doubts whether the card catalog is ever going to become the guide, philosopher and friend of the ordinary

user of libraries. Its inherent difficulties are many and serious, even at the best. I think that it is fair to say that the average card catalog will always require explanation and will always need an interpreter so long as our readers are not trained in its use so that they know the niceties of arrangement, of entry and sub-headings. Why not recognize this fact? Why not have in our large research libraries at least, one attendant whose sole—or chief—duty it shall be to assist the reader desiring to use the catalog? Do you ever go to the catalog yourself when there is an unusual number of readers present that someone does not ask you a question as to what this card means, or how to find some title in the curious machine? I should like to see the experiment tried and to learn the results. I am sure that attendant would earn his money!

Now if we have provided in some way for aiding our students to use the library intelligently, if we have trained our assistants at the desk to help them to help themselves, still better, if we have given them formal instruction in the art of using books in libraries, there remains the curious problem of the "reserved" books. These books become, in the student's eyes, practically text books, and their attitude toward them is singularly like their indifference toward the algebra or the history which forms the basis for instruction in class-room work. They come frequently, or perhaps daily, to the library to read a given number of pages on which they are to be quizzed. There is no enthusiasm for the task as a rule; frequently this reading is an unwelcome requirement, an uncomfortable incident of the college course. We may find this attitude of indifference, or even distaste, extending toward the whole library. That love for the world of books, that passion for letters which is the hallmark of the scholar they may—and do—utterly escape. The great development of the seminar and departmental libraries begets, too often, a similar attitude toward literature in maturer students. Have we not in this situation a challenge to our inventiveness and to our loyalty to our profession? Is there no way in which we may win the enthusiasm and devotion of the modern student for human letters? We cannot afford to ignore the problem. It exists and it is growing in seriousness. My own feeling is that it is partially

met by a large open shelf collection, for circulation as well as reference, in the reading room; by the silent invitation of interesting books which may be read without let or hindrance.

There is another class of difficulties which sometimes calls for all the tact the librarian possesses. I refer to his relations with the faculty, and with investigators of experience. It is, from one point of view, absurd to think that the reference librarian can be of much service to an eminent specialist, but our experience generally is, I think, that he so frequently can be of use in bibliographical matters that he is subject to very many demands from the professors and others. In many cases these are perfectly reasonable and legitimate—the service is gladly rendered and the work offers problems of extreme interest to the reference librarian. He is likely to be able, by reason of his familiarity with all sorts of catalogs, to run down titles obscurely quoted, and to perform other feats of library legerdemain in a fashion that not infrequently astonishes even the trained investigator. This very facility, however, may lead to demands on his time that are wholly unreasonable in view of other responsibilities he must bear. In conversation with reference librarians I have found that the tendency of certain professors to make private secretaries out of them was a very real difficulty in their work. To meet it requires experience and tact, and, occasionally, the balancing judgment of the head librarian. The existence of this problem is in itself a witness to the efficiency of the work done by the reference librarian. No expert would trouble him this way, if his work were poor and weak. It is a problem resulting from good work, and therefore to be welcomed.

Even if the relations with the faculty are in no case such as to cause questioning, I think we are safe in saying that there will always exist the necessity for determining the amount of assistance to be given to seekers after genealogical data. How far can we afford to go in research libraries in aiding those engaged in the gentle sport of "hunting ancestors?" This is a practical problem of every-day work. Shall we decline to give assistance beyond putting the ordinary indices and guides before the reader, or shall we enter into his problem and try to aid him to run down the

particular ancestor about whom he is uncertain? If we attempt much of this sort of help, we shall soon find ourselves doing a very considerable amount of extra work. If the other duties are not too heavy, well and good. But should we do this genealogical reference work for readers when other demands on our time are multifarious and important? In general I think we should not. There are plenty of professional genealogists who can do it better, perhaps, than we can. The university libraries are usually in receipt of numerous inquiries about students in the early years of the institution from their actual or suppositious descendants. This sort of inquiry seems to me perfectly legitimate, the more so as it oftens leads the inquirer to present documents and other material of value to the university library. But in general I favor refusing to do genealogical reference work for correspondents, particularly those who have no claim on the library.

We may also consider in this connection the question of making transcripts for correspondents. Requests to do this are numerous, in my experience, and frequently burdensome. The amount which we are asked to copy varies from a single line to several chapters. Frequently the circumstances of the correspondent are such as to make the request seem reasonable—or at least of a sort to make us wish to grant it. I presume we all do more or less of this sort of work, but the problem is to draw the line beyond which we cannot go. Of course the development of the inter-library loan is aiding us to meet the problem to a certain extent. We can say to a correspondent that the book from which transcripts are desired can be sent to the local library where he can make the copy himself, but we cannot, of course, do this in the case of extremely rare works, of manuscripts and of valuable or heavy newspapers. When the extract desired is short, we can probably afford to aid the inquirer, but when it involves much time, we had better turn over the inquiry to a professional copyist who will arrange for the work directly with the correspondent.

This brings us to the question of certifying under oath to the correctness of such copies. Should we undertake to make attested copies for use in law-suits? Perhaps this matter does not come up so frequently in most libraries,

but it is a very troublesome one when it does occur. If a document can be photographed, that process of reproduction will relieve us of the difficulty. In the case of copies, the lawyers are likely to demand that the chief librarian shall make the attest. Again, calling in a professional copyist or typewriter will relieve the situation. His oath is amply sufficient, and will be accepted by the court.

I have endeavored to show that there are problems as to the amount of aid to be attempted in nearly every department of reference work and loan desk service. Many of them arise from the inexperience of readers—others from the insistent demands of scholars. We can provide against the first by the organization of our own force and by the gradual process of education in using books. The only limit that we care to set to our response to the second sort is that of our means. Give us the men and the money and we will take care of the growing demands of the trained workers.

PERSONAL RELATIONS BETWEEN LIBRARIANS AND READERS

A pioneer article, by Mr. Samuel Swett Green, quoted here in part, advocates sympathetic service for the inquiring public and offers suggestions, practical even in this our age,—unless it be his kindly charge: "Say gently to immature persons that they cannot expect to have opinions upon profound controverted questions."

In two other volumes, I and II of this series, *The Relationship Between the Library and the Public Schools,* and *Library Work with Children,* short sketches of Mr. Green will be found. His death occurred at Worcester, Massachusetts, December 9, 1918.

When scholars and persons of high social position come to a library, they have confidence enough, in regard to the cordiality of their reception, to make known their wishes without timidity or reserve.

Modest men in the humbler walks of life, and well-trained boys and girls, need encouragement before they become ready to say freely what they want.

A hearty reception by a sympathizing friend, and the recognition of some one at hand who will listen to inquiries, even although he may consider them unimportant, make it easy for such persons to ask questions, and put them at once on a home footing.

. . .

There are obvious limits to the assistance which a librarian can undertake to render. Common-sense will dictate them. Thus no librarian would take the responsibility of recommending books to give directions for the treatment of disease. Nor would he give legal advice nor undertake to instruct applicants in regard to the practical manipulations of the workshop or laboratory.

I have not been unmindful, in what has been said, of the great value of the assistance rendered readers by certain cata-

logues which have been issued lately. There is little danger of appreciating too highly such work as that for which we are indebted to Mr. Noyes, Mr. Cutter and Mr. Winsor and his able assistants. I need not remind you, however, that many persons who use a library have to be instructed in regard to the use of catalogues, and need practice before they can use them to the best advantage. Entries are overlooked. Discrimination is lacking for separating good books from those of little merit, and books adapted to the capacity and particular needs of the user from those which are unsuited to his requirements. It frequently happens, also, that readers do not know under what general subject to look for a minute piece of information. Lately constructed catalogues are so made as to facilitate immensely the researches not only of scholars, but of the general unlearned reader. When the admirable notes found in some of the catalogues of the Boston Public Library, and in the catalogue of the library at Quincy, Massachusetts, shall have been increased in numbers and made to include information in regard to the literature of all branches of knowledge, they will, particularly if kept up to date, be found of inestimable service by the general reader and inexperienced student. But the time is distant when the whole field of knowledge can be covered by these notes; and even when it shall be occupied, much personal assistance will still be needed by readers in popular libraries.

Of course, too, it will always be necessary for a librarian to extend to readers the hospitalities of his institution.

Among the good results which attend personal intercourse on the part of the librarian with users of popular libraries, the following may be mentioned.

First. If you gain the respect and confidence of readers, and they find you easy to get at and pleasant to talk with, great opportunities are afforded of stimulating the love of study and of directing investigators to the best sources of information.

Second. You find out what books the actual users of the library need, and your judgment improves in regard to the kind of books it is best to add to it. You see what subjects the constituency of the institution are interested in, and what is the degree of simplicity they require in the presentation of knowledge.

Third. One of the best means of making a library *popular*

is to mingle freely with its users, and help them in every way. When this policy is pursued for a series of years in any town, a very large portion of the citizens receive answers to questions, and the conviction spreads through the community that the library is an institution of such beneficent influences that it cannot be dispensed with.

Fourth, and last. The collections of books which make up the contents of the circulating departments of our libraries have been provided for the use of persons of differing degrees of refinement and moral susceptibility, and for those who occupy mental planes of various altitudes.

Now, the policy advocated of freedom of intercourse between librarian and readers, when adopted in the conduct of these departments, does much to give efficiency to the efforts of the officers to get readers to take out wholesome books and such works as are adapted to their capacity and the grade of enlightenment to which they belong. It is a common practice, as we all know, for users of a library to ask the librarian or his assistants to select stories for them. I would have great use made of this disposition. Place in the circulating department one of the most accomplished persons in the corps of your assistants—some cultivated woman, for instance, who heartily enjoys works of the imagination, but whose taste is educated. She must be a person of pleasant manners, and while of proper dignity, ready to unbend, and of social disposition. It is well if there is a vein of philanthropy in her composition. Instruct this assistant to consult with every person who asks for help in selecting books. This should not be her whole work; for work of this kind is best done when it has the appearance of being performed incidentally. Let the assistant, then, have some regular work, but such employment as she can at once lay aside when her aid is asked for in picking out books to read. I am confident that in some such way as this a great influence can be exerted in the direction of causing good books to be used. The person placed in charge of this work must have tact, and be careful not to attempt too much. If an applicant would cease to consult her unless she gives him a sensational novel, I would have her give him such a book. Only let her aim at providing every person who applies for aid with the best book he is willing to read.

Personal intercourse and relations between librarian and

readers are useful in all libraries. It seems to me that in popular libraries they are indispensable. Six years ago I was a member of the Board of Directors of the Free Public Library of the city of Worcester, Massachusetts. At that time I noticed that its reference department was hardly used at all, and was fast becoming an unpopular institution. During the last five or six years, by the adoption of the means recommended in this paper, a large use of this department has grown up, and it has come to be highly appreciated in the community.

It is because an interesting experience in the Worcester Library has led me to place a high value upon personal intercourse between librarian and readers, that I have ventured to call your attention to the subject in the paper I am now reading.

Certain mental qualities are requisite or desirable in library officers who mingle with readers. Prominent among these is a courteous disposition which will disclose itself in agreeable manners. Sympathy, cheerfulness and patience are needful. Enthusiasm is as productive of good results here as elsewhere

A librarian should be as unwilling to allow an inquirer to leave the library with his question unanswered as a shop-keeper is to have a customer go out of his store without making a purchase.

Receive investigators with something of the cordiality displayed by an old-time inn-keeper. Hold on to them until they have obtained the information they are seeking, and show a persistency in supplying their wants similar to that manifested by a successful clerk in effecting a sale.

It is important to have a democratic spirit in dealing with readers in popular libraries. The librarian is not, of course, to overlook the neglect of deference which is due him, or to countenance in any way the error which prevails to a considerable extent in this country, that because artificial distinctions of rank have been abolished here, there need be no recognition of the real differences among men in respect to taste, intellect and character. But he runs little risk in placing readers on a footing of equality with himself. The superiority of his culture will always enable him to secure the respectful treatment which belongs to him when confronted by impudence or conceit.

What is needed in the librarian is a ready sympathy with rational curiosity, by whomsoever manifested, and a feeling

of pleasure in brightening any glimmerings of desire that manifest themselves in lowly people to grow in culture or become better informed in regard to the scientific principles which underlie the processes of their daily occupations.

In personal intercourse with readers, there are certain mental tendencies which should be restrained. Idle curiosity is one of them. Many scholars prefer to pursue their studies privately, and are annoyed if they think they are observed.

Respect reticence. If you approach a reader with the purpose of aiding him, and find him unwilling to admit you to his confidence, regard his wishes and allow him to make investigations by himself.

Be careful not to make inquirers dependent. Give them as much assistance as they need, but try at the same time to teach them to rely upon themselves and become independent.

Avoid scrupulously the propagation of any particular set of views in politics, art, history, philosophy or theology. "*Tros Tyriusque mihi nullo discrimine agetur*" are words which Virgil puts into the mouth of Queen Dido. The *North American Review* has adopted them as its motto. The promise they contain is one that should be kept by the librarian also.

The librarian who uses his position to make proselytes prostitutes his calling. State the mental tendencies and the characteristics of disputants, but do not become their advocates.

If a reader ask you for your own views regarding some matter about which there is controversy, give them to him if you choose. Decline to give them if you choose. Remind him, however, in either case, that if he wishes to have an opinion of his own, he must study the subject in its different aspects and form one for himself. Say gently to immature persons that they cannot expect to have opinions upon profound controverted questions, and that they must wait until they grow in knowledge, and until their reasoning powers develop, before their views on such matters will be of value.

Avoid religiously the practice of cramming the minds of young inquirers with one-sided views in regard to questions in dispute.

In the largest libraries it will be found impossible for the superintendent to deal personally with many of the readers. If, however, of such a temperament that he takes pleasure in associating with the users of the library, he can, by only giving

a few minutes in a day to the work, do a great deal to make visitors and students feel that an air of hospitality pervades the institution. Most of the intercourse in such libraries must be between readers and accomplished or specially informed assistants.

In many of the smaller libraries the officers cannot find time to mingle freely with readers. Perhaps, in some such cases, it may be practicable for librarians to avail themselves of gratuitous assistance by public-spirited and educated residents. I should think there are, for instance, many cultivated and philanthropic women in the country whose services can be availed of to do work of the kind recommended. The boards of trustees and directors which manage public libraries may be relied on to appreciate this kind of work, and are always inclined to further its performance by allowing time to the librarian in which to do it.

The more freely a librarian mingles with readers, and the greater the amount of assistance he renders them, the more intense does the conviction of citizens, also, become, that the library is a useful institution, and the more willing do they grow to grant money in larger and larger sums to be used in buying books and employing additional assistants.

In conclusion, I wish to say that there are few pleasures comparable to that of associating continually with curious and vigorous young minds, and of aiding them in realizing their ideals.

REFERENCE WORK FROM THE LIBRARIAN'S POINT OF VIEW

A convincing argument in favor of a sense of humor —the librarian's real salvation—is this entertaining paper of Miss Corinne Bacon. In her characterizations of the public she cleverly reveals the duties of librarians. It was read October 15, 1902, before the Connecticut Library Association.

A sketch of Miss Bacon will be found in *The Library and its Contents,* Volume V of this series.

What is "the librarian's point of view"? Is there but one? It seems to me that the point of view is conditioned, both by the librarian and the library in which she works, and that the number of ways of looking at the subject is equal to the number of librarians engaged in the work.

The point of view here taken is that of a librarian in a library of from 15,000 to 20,000 volumes, where there were for some years but two librarians, and where consequently the duties of each were as all-embracing as the duties of the railroad employee, who, when reprimanded for negligence, versed his woes as follows:

> "Oh, I am a train and a station hand,
> And a flagman as tends a switch,
> And a ticket-seller, and a handy feller,
> And I don't know mostly which!"

Each of us was reference librarian—and a great many other things as well. To this valuable experience I have recently added a brief term of service in the reference department of a library of some 400,000 volumes.

I fear that I shall be unable to set forth any new truth concerning reference work. All that I can do will be to emphasize certain truths, familiar and self-evident, which loom up especially on my horizon; and to set forth the subject in an orderly fashion, it may be well to take up in sequence

(1) the worker, or reference librarian; (2) her materials and methods of work; (3) those for whom she works—the public.

If anything is impressed upon us nowadays, it is the seriousness of our profession as librarians, the importance, nay, the necessity of attaining physical, mental and moral perfection. After listening to such preaching, one feels almost sorry for the unfortunates who inhabited our little planet before the modern librarian appeared to teach them how to live! Are we not taking ourselves too seriously? Why should we insist upon shouldering the whole burden of the well-being of the universe? There are others—parents, teachers, doctors, ministers, legislators—with whom we may and ought to share the responsibility. Why should not mothers take at least as much thought for what goes into their children's minds as for what goes into their stomachs? And is the printed page the only influence at work upon humanity?

But this heresy is leading us astray from our subject. Suppose we grant that librarians in general ought to be perfect, then what shall we require of the reference librarian? It seems to me that she should then be what an old French teacher used to mark his pupils when they had an unusually good lesson—"More than perfect." For is not the reference department the heart of the library? It is well to provide men, women and children with the literature of power and with the literature of amusement, but the function of the library in both of these directions is necessarily limited. The books which serve for inspiration should be owned, they can never do all that it is in their power to do for the reader while on a fortnight's visit from a library, while the amount of ephemeral light literature purchasable by most libraries is strictly conditioned by the paucity of funds available for new books of this type. The reference department, which purchases for the many, books too expensive for any one man to buy for the limited use he is likely to make of them, which supplements and continues the work of the school, is, in the eyes of many taxpayers, the sole justification of the tax-supported library. This department therefore calls for a high grade of service, and even though the librarian in charge of it cannot attain unto perfection, still there are a few qualifications which seem to be essential to the proper discharge of the duties of her office.

The reference librarian should first and foremost

Be approachable. There are some people who are reservoirs of knowledge, and yet all their wisdom is of no avail to the man who wants information, because their manner is so forbidding that the average man would as soon face a Gatling gun as ask them a question. Cultivate a pleasant, easy manner of meeting people on their own ground. This does not mean to cultivate the grin of the Cheshire cat. It is quite possible to make oneself too agreeable. It is not necessary to be "keepin' your face in smilin' order like a grocer o' market-day, for fear people shouldna think you civil enough!"

Be omniscient. If you can't be omniscient, be as omniscient as you can. You never thought or said or learned or did anything which may not some day be of use to you in your reference capacity. Have you built a boat, or sailed one? Made a pudding, or taught a Sunday-school class? Studied conic sections, or specialized in abnormal psychology? Climbed the Alps, or experimented upon yourself with mushrooms? You are sure to want some day whatever knowledge you have gained in these ways, or in any others.

Be tactful. A keen insight into human nature, the power to read people quickly, the tact which tells us when to offer and when to withhold help, and how we may often help without the appearance of doing so, are invaluable qualities to the reference librarian. It will not do to make the mistake of thinking that an intelligent person needs no assistance in order that he may successfully wrestle with card catalog, indexes and bibliographies. People of far greater intellectual ability than the librarian may not, generally do not, know how to use the librarian's tools. And even if the public do know the use of these things, they are not likely, when left to themselves, to take the short and royal road to knowledge. It is one of the hardest problems which confronts us—the problem of deciding when to offer assistance—of striking the happy mean between the attitude of the sphinx and the attitude of a Cook's guide. One of the most intelligent women in town walked into my library one day and asked for Poole's index. I thought to myself, "That woman is one of the few who know just what they want. I'll not question her. I'll simply give her what she asks for." So for the space of one hour I carried out bound magazines as she called for them—all to no purpose. Finally, in a burst of confidence, she told me what she was

trying to find. Inside of two minutes I was able to put a book into her hand which made her exclaim in delight: "Why, this is exactly what I wanted!" I had wasted an hour of her time and an hour of mine because I was afraid of seeming officious and inquisitive if I asked such an intelligent woman just what she wanted.

It is equally easy to err on the other side. I remember carefully explaining to a schoolgirl, who asked for some antiquated books of science, that those books were unreliable and that I could give her some much more up to date, only to find out that she was preparing an essay on old scientific text-books, and wanted the very things which I was so eager to prevent her from having.

The quality which I should place next to tact is *patience*—the patience of Job. Yea, more than the patience of Job, for the public, however foolish, flighty and unreasonable, may never be taken to task by its humble servant as Job took to task the Almighty. I do not go so far, however, as to set up patient Griselda for a model, for I think that there should be a limit to the long suffering of even the reference librarian. There was a teacher in our town who sent in the following list of questions with a request that we should within twenty-four hours get out all the books and articles in the library bearing upon every one of them, as she would like the class to look over the material in order to decide upon which subjects they would prefer to write. This is the list:

1. Is the Cuban capable of self-government?
2. The bearing of the Monroe doctrine upon the questions of the day.
3. The influence of art on character.
4. International arbitration as a preventive of war.
5. Journalism as a profession.
6. The influence of music upon a community.
7. What the musical world owes to Germany.
8. Noted rides in history.
9. Historic churches.
10. The necessity of methods in modern campaigning.
11. The effect of the present methods of campaigning.
12. Are the present political methods justifiable?
13. Warships of the twentieth century.
14. Problems confronting Greater New York.
15. Our next really great electrical invention.

This was too much. The worm (otherwise reference librarian) turned and told the teacher that if she would decide which subjects the class were to write upon, the material should be speedily forthcoming, but that it would be impossible to hunt up all the references on those fifteen subjects. It was rather puzzling anyway to know just what material one could offer on "Our next really great electrical invention" before it was invented.

It goes without saying that one must have the persistence of a sleuthhound when on the trail of a fact, must be accurate and must be thoroughly familiar with the tools of her trade.

It is also necessary to form the newspaper habit. A librarian who does not read the daily papers loses many opportunities of usefulness. It is especially desirable to read the local papers, and in every possible way to gain a thorough knowledge of your town. I fear that the model librarian often held up for our admiration, who knows all the ministers, teachers, editors, political bosses, members of the school board, labor leaders, officers of the woman's club, and of all other clubs and classes, religious and secular, is a myth. A woman in the ordinary small library who should attempt to add all this outside work of keeping in touch with everybody and everything to her required eight hours or more in the library, would certainly have very few hours left for eating and sleeping, and though she might cut down her allowance of food and rest for a time with impunity, she would soon do what the old horse did just as he was nicely trained to live on a straw a day—"up and die!"

Nevertheless, a great deal can be done if you will only read the papers and thus keep in touch with what is going on. Is there a smallpox epidemic, necessitating the erection of an isolation hospital? Send the chairman of the committee on construction that recent book you bought on "Epidemics and isolation hospitals." It will never occur to him to come and ask whether you have any such book in the library. Is the town considering a new method of sewage disposal? See that those who are to determine what system shall be adopted know the resources of the library on the subject. Is a noted man about to lecture in town? Put up a portrait bulletin with a list of all of his books that are in the library, and if possible a few references to the man himself. Have you a G. A. R. post?

Send it a carefully prepared reading list of your books on the Civil war. Perhaps I am now trespassing upon the preserves of what would be in a large library the loan department, but in the small library the work cannot be divided on any hard and fast lines.

Given the qualities of approachableness, omniscience, tact, patience, persistence, accuracy, knowledge of one's tools, knowledge of one's town and familiarity with current events, yet all is not said. Last, but by no means least, the reference librarian should possess a sense of humor. It will lengthen her days, as well as add materially to the comfort of the public. It is better to be able to smile than to be irritated at the foolishness of a teacher when she sends a boy presumably aged ten to you for material for a composition on "The duties of parents," or "The nature and choice of a procession." (The boy evidently varied that last subject slightly.) The child who asks you for the "Anthropology of poetry" in order that she may look up a piece to speak, and that other who demands "The laws of New Britain against trees" when he wishes to look up local ordinances bearing upon tree protection, will add to your joy in life, and enable you to be more polite to the next bore who victimizes you.

Secondly, as to methods and materials of work. The reference books proper should be as compactly arranged as possible. Extra copies of books circulated, but also necessary in reference work, should be provided for the reference room. My own experience indicates that one can do better work with a few well-selected books under one's hand, than with a greater number scattered over a considerable area. When books needed are located in different rooms, perhaps widely separated, so that the intervention of runners is necessary, it is harder to do satisfactory work, than where immediate personal inspection of the books is possible.

While indexes and bibliographies should be freely bought so far as they are of use, there are many which are not of sufficient value to the small library to make it worth one's while to invest in them, because so few of the books listed are in the library. A complete bibliography of a subject is generally less useful than a well-selected and annotated list. The thing that we usually want to know is what are the few *best* books and articles on a given subject, and the complete, unannotated bib-

liography has usually been of greater use to the compiler than it is ever likely to be to any one else. And no bibliography can ever take the place, in public library work, of the librarian who knows her books.

The usefulness of magazines as substitutes for and supplements to books, their superiority to books in scientific work, because the scientific book is out of date before it can be put upon the market, their value in getting up debates, etc. is, I think, generally understood. I wonder whether the desirability of indexing certain articles in them as soon as the magazines are received, is equally well understood?

The Astor Library used to (and may still) index periodicals as soon as received, placing the slips in its card catalog, and withdrawing them at the end of the year upon the arrival of Poole. Few libraries can afford anything so elaborate as this. But if there be a librarian here who does not and cannot take the "Cumulative index," I feel sure that it will pay her to index on cards for her own use whatever magazines she takes. Before the issue of the Cumulative, we used to do that in our library, and were well repaid for our trouble. Since taking the Cumulative, we have continued to index certain articles likely to be called for in our town. For example, certain subjects which come up pretty regularly for debate in the schools each year, are kept up to date by the addition of current articles on those subjects to existing reference lists.

It is natural to go on from this to speak of the importance of keeping notes of the lairs of facts once painfully run to earth. The few minutes spent in making a permanent note for your card index of the sources of information which it has been difficult for you to find, is never wasted. What one man wanted to know to-day, someone else is pretty sure to want to know a few months hence.

The importance of working through the newspapers also needs to be emphasized. If the editors are friendly, it is possible to print lists of books and interesting paragraphs about the library which will lure many a citizen to the reference room.

Thirdly, the public. The public may be divided into three classes:

(1) The select few who know just what they want, state

their want with clearness and expect you to meet it. It is a joy to work for them.

(2) The people who expect nothing of you, apologize for disturbing you, and break out into a fever of gratitude over the slightest assistance. These are amusing.

(3) The people who expect you to do all their work for them. These are irritating.

Still they are all good fellows in the main, with more virtues than I can take time to point out. Let me rather dilate upon a few of their failings—express a few wishes of the reference librarian concerning certain of them. The librarian wishes

That they would learn to know what they want. So many people are like the woman who wanted to study up the settlement of Ireland for her club, but didn't know whether she wanted books on the earliest or the Danish or the Cromwellian colonization; or like the woman who went into a Chicago library and said that she wanted a book which would tell her how to be a virtuoso! The librarian tried to ascertain a little more definitely what was wanted, and was answered as follows: "Oh, I don't know. I heard a virtuoso was a good thing to be, and I just thought I'd like to be one. Haven't you a book that will tell me how?"

If a man knows what he wants, even though he can express himself to you but vaguely, he has taken one step towards simplifying your problem. The man who asked for "a book about a man who appropriated everything he saw. If he saw a castle, it was his because he enjoyed it. There was a good deal in it about his wife," helped the librarian materially to a lucky guess that the book wanted was Curtis's "Prue and I."

That they would conquer their reluctance to tell you what they want, when they do happen to know. I have never yet been able to understand the secretiveness of the average individual when he confronts a reference librarian! He could not be more reticent about his debts or his love affairs than he is about the fact he wishes to ascertain. One would almost think that he considered it indecent to state baldly what he wanted. He will ask you for a United States history, and shake his head over all that you offer, until he finally decides as a forlorn hope to reveal to you his exact want, and tells you that what he is after is something about the battle of Gettysburg. Whereupon you produce the book desired.

That they would not tell you that they know where certain information is to be found when they don't. That makes you lose time. One soon learns, however, that when a man says he wants an article on Hawaii which appeared in *Harper's* for 1893, it is much more likely to be found in *Scribner's* for 1889 (or somewhere else), and that it saves time to look first in Poole.

That they would cultivate a willingness to use their own brains, instead of requiring that their mental food be predigested. Do you recall what Mr. Dooley says about reading? "The thruth is that readin' is th' next thing this side iv goin' to bed f'r restin' th' mind. With most people it takes th' place iv wurruk. A man doesn't think whin he's readin', or if he has to, th' book is no fun. Believe me, Hinnissy, readin' is not thinkin'. It seems like it an' whin it comes out in talk sometimes, it sounds like it. It's a kind iv nearthought that looks ginooyne to th' thoughtless, but ye can't get annything on it." Now Mr. Dooley's idea of reading is the idea a good many people have about studying up a subject in a library. They don't want to think when they're doing it or it's "no fun." They will indulge in "a kind iv nearthought," but if there is any real thinking to be done, they prefer that the librarian should do it. Now while we are glad to furnish the man with tools wherewith to build his house, he really has no right to expect us to build the house for him.

I wonder whether we as a people are losing the power to think our own thoughts on a subject, and to deal with it in an independent, original way? Perhaps not. It may be only that nowadays every one reads, and writes papers, and indulges in debate, so while there may be as many people as there ever were who can stand squarely on their own feet, and look steadily out of their own eyes, and form their own conclusions, these are lost sight of in the countless multitude who prefer a second-hand article in thought. The reference librarian is frequently and sadly struck by the number of people who refuse to attack a subject for themselves, but are very eager to know what others have thought and said about it. Often the very teachers, whether through lack of time or of training I will not attempt to decide, are unwilling to deal with the simplest sort of original material, from which they may select and boil down what they want, but insist upon a book which will give them the information in the exact form in which they intend

to present it to their pupils. And their pupils too often prepare for composition or debate by copying what they half understand from encyclopedias and magazine articles, instead of thinking for themselves along the lines suggested. This induces mental indolence, and, to quote Mr. Dooley once more, the state of the man who "so doped himself with books that he'd stumble over a carpet-tack!" Of course the schools should not put a premium upon this sort of thing. But neither should the reference librarian.

That people would treat books properly. The librarian who quails not before the man who wants to know what proportion of the fresh water of the globe pours over Niagara Falls yearly, or what was the old English form of the freedom of the city, or what determines the rate of wages, or what are the recent changes in the customs of the English court as to ostrich plumes, or in what month and day Shrove Tuesday fell in 1820; and who is ready to furnish information upon a wide range of subjects, from the addresses of the manufacturers of envelope-making machines, to "the dog in mythology and in the Bible," will yet shrink from suggesting ever so politely to a woman who is ruining the "Century dictionary," that she should handle it a little more carefully. The boldness of a lion is needed to do this at all, and the craftiness of Machiavelli is needed to do it without offence.

Lastly, the reference librarian wishes humbly, knowing that she is wishing for the impossible, *that the people wouldn't all come at once.* If the man who wants everything that the library contains upon landscape gardening, and the woman who wants references for a club paper on "The causes of pauperism," would only delay their coming until you have gotten out the books on "Government control of railroads" for the Y. M. C. A. debate, and a few references on "What the 19th century has done for women" for the High School girls, uninterrupted except for a call to the desk now and then to translate an Italian word, or tell the cost of a seat in the New York Stock Exchange, or suggest some new and pleasing entertainment for the Methodist Church, or help your new assistant by telling her what the boy wants who is calling for "Eugene's book of western verse," or the woman who is demanding "Various fairs" [Vanity Fair], or the man who is clamoring for "Dewent's origin of insects" [Darwin's origin of species], or the novel

"Ben she." But no, it always pours inquirers when it rains at all, and the reference librarian who cannot, outwardly serene as a matter of course, and inwardly serene if possible, attend to at least six things simultaneously, might better leave the profession.

Before closing I want to make a brief plea for reasonably short hours of work.

"There was a young student of Tyre,
Who said, ''Tis my constant desire
To work night and day,
For it bores me to play'—
Now was he a prig or a liar?"

I think that he was both—and something of a fool into the bargain. There is a limit to all human endurance. The more exacting one's work is, the briefer should be the period of labor. The reference librarian cannot maintain the required mental keenness, concentration and agility of mind, and serenity of temper demanded by the work, for many hours at a stretch.

I have held up my ideal for the librarian, and my ideal for the public. We fall far short of our own ideals, and the public for whom we so gladly work fall far short of our ideals for them. "I'm not denyin' the women are foolish," said Mrs. Poyser, "God Almighty made 'em to match the men."

"I'm not denyin' the reference librarians are faulty," we may say, "God Almighty made 'em to match the public!"

MISDIRECTION OF EFFORT IN REFERENCE WORK

The paragraphs which follow are notes of a talk before the American Library Institute at the Mackinac meeting, July, 1910, in which Mr. John Cotton Dana gives a concise and practical outline of the relative importance of calls coming to the attention of librarians, a matter of concern wherever demands are greatly multiplied.

A biographical account of Mr. Dana may be found in Volume I of this series, *The Relationship Between the Library and The Public Schools.* Mr. Dana died in New York City, July 21, 1929.

Every library desires to give the amplest attention possible to inquiries addressed to it.

Every library discovers that a complete answer to certain inquiries would require an expenditure of time beyond its means and a neglect of fair attention to others.

It must draw the line (1) at any expenditure* upon inquiries of a certain class; (2) at more than a "reasonable" expenditure upon the others.

Is there any basis upon which inquiries of class (1) can be defined, or upon which the reasonableness of the expenditure of the others can be determined?

We are apt to say, "Why, yes; the importance of the inquiry." But upon whose judgment is the "importance" to depend?—upon that of the inquirer? But to every inquirer his question of the moment is the most important affair of the moment. Upon the judgment of the attendant?—but if this judgment be purely his personal impression it may be less than fair to the library, for it will represent merely his personal interest, knowledge or experience.

Are there any general canons which can be laid down for him? I think there are; depending

A. Upon the subject-matter: its claim.

B. Upon the inquirer: his claim.

* That is, the direct search. An indication of the authorities which the reader may consult is, of course, inevitable.

C. Upon the possibility of success.

A. The subject-matter: the claims for this may be ranked, for instance:

(1) Inquiries whose answers may widen the boundaries of knowledge (i.e., human knowledge).

(2) Inquiries whose answers may promote or convenience

(a) The public service

(b) The service of a profession

(c) The practice of an art

(d) The operations of a business.

(3) Inquiries whose answers may be instructive to a group (i. e., society or club) engaged in serious study (though not in research).

(4) Inquiries whose answers may be similarly instructive to an individual student (whose object is improvement, but merely his own improvement).

(5) Inquiries issuing out of a zest for cultivation as distinguished from a labor for knowledge.

(6) Inquiries purely recreative—a subdivision of which would be those issuing out of prize contests and even those for genealogical information, when purely personal and dilettante.

(7) Inquiries obviously frivolous.

If the above should be the relative rank of those inquiries in a hierarchy of "importance," it does not mean that this should determine their priority in order of treatment. As to this, for instance, the four groups under (2) would probably be reversed: the business man must have his answer first, partly because his practical need is immediate and for an immediate "practical" application; while the needs of the other groups are apt to be more leisurely, and with a general rather than a particular purpose; but also because the business man's interest in the library is especially to be cultivated since he, particularly, supports it.

B. He, therefore, has a claim irrespective of the importance of the subject-matter in which he is interested. A trustee of the library would also have a claim, or one specially introduced by him, and any other person (official of the government, members of the city council, etc.). So also would unofficial benefactors of the library, actual or prospective.

To give a measure of preference to such persons, to stretch a rule or practice in their behalf, is to "favor" them at the expense of others, but they are not so numerous or their calls so frequent that the expense (to others) would be substantial or perceived.

At all events, the concession is inevitable, and the expenditure which it entails may justly be charged to "advertising," or rather to demonstration (i. e., of the utility of the library), to persons whose interest and influence are important but the opportunity for convincing them slight, since the contacts are so few.

C. The probability of success, or rather of failure, must be held in view; for no librarian is honest in pushing the search of his own collections beyond the point where they may be expected to yield an adequate answer. If fairly certain that they will not, his honest duty is to refer the inquirer to those which will.

Mr. Dana's main points were two:

1. The undue waste of library time, under present practice, in searching for answers to questions of trivial importance. The criticism is just. The practice is due to zeal for the inquirer, to zeal in the pursuit, to vanity in the success; but also to a lack of sense of proportion, or of criteria to which to refer. To most reference attendants a question is a question, and it must be answered to the limit or the library will seem churlish or inefficient.

It may be a token of a higher efficiency for the library to inform the inquirer (1) that the question is one that cannot be answered adequately there (but may be in such another institution, bureau or office elsewhere), or (2) that it is a question the answer to which may exist in designated material but must be sought by himself; or (3) that the library time already put upon it has now reached the limit of what can be expended without injustice to other work or other readers. For as the "liberty of one citizen ends where the liberty of the next begins," so the privilege of one reader must end where the privilege of the next begins.

2. Mr. Dana's second thesis was that the prime duty of the library was not to answer the question, but to instruct the inquirer in the use of the material by which he may secure the answer for himself. Perhaps he will develop this. There was some dissent from it and an attempt at a distinction (at least)

between the academic library, or any library serving a constituency engaged in formal instruction of which the use of a library may be part, and a library maintained by the community at large whose constituency is the general public, the latter expecting of it the service of a bureau of information.

THE AMERICAN PUBLIC LIBRARY AND THE DIFFUSION OF KNOWLEDGE

The following excerpts are taken from a comprehensive work—a strikingly original presentation of library affairs by one without the library profession. The author, William Setchel Learned, has been, since 1913, upon the staff of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. His work is markedly interesting and stimulating and should be read as a whole; while quoted extensively here, it has been difficult to select portions that are confined strictly to the subject of this volume.

William Setchel Learned was born June 5, 1876, in Alpena, Michigan, and is a graduate of Brown University in the class of 1897; there, in 1908, he received his A. M. degree, and, in 1912, from Harvard, that of PhD. From 1909 to 1911 he worked at the universities of Berlin and Leipzig. The years 1897 to 1909 he devoted to teaching.

(3) *New Demands for an Organization of Knowledge for Adult Use*

There are everywhere indications that our American society is on the eve of a much more thoroughgoing organization of its intelligence service than has hitherto been attempted, and this too, primarily, though not exclusively, in the interests of adults. The array of real and pseudo-educational endeavors just cited—a list that might be greatly extended—is evidence enough that the school and college have long since burst their walls and overflowed, carrying their methods and scholastic content into conditions of a quite different nature from those under which their procedure originated. Clearly, the sort of thing that school and college have hitherto been supposed to represent is in great general demand. The acquisition of orderly and trustworthy knowledge is no longer to be considered as an esoteric

mystery locked up in an institution and available only for the young and for professional teachers; self-education with intimate relation to daily interests and activities must be recognized as a natural process of mental growth that responds to a constant and legitimate craving of the intelligent adult which continues, if properly gratified, throughout life. The existing borrowed and imperfect methods taken over from the schools have revealed this hunger and made it articulate; the present problem is to develop a technique suited to the satisfaction of its peculiar demands.

Another form of pressure toward some rational and economical organization for distributing knowledge appears in the rapid accumulation of vast masses of information which makes imperative some means of selection, digest or abridgment whereby any one who needs them may gain possession of essential facts without delay and without discouraging or prohibitive effort. Every form of human activity has been stimulated by the phenomenal improvement in speed and accuracy of communication, and by the consequent increase in area over which experience may now be readily assembled and compared. The result is that each separate activity, both new and old, is rapidly developing its own literature. "Selling," "advertising," "the policing of crowds," "raising money for colleges," "title-writing for motion pictures," become "sciences" almost over night, and formulate principles and procedure that must be passed along. Important and voluminous data flow in to-day from every country on earth more freely than news from the neighboring county thirty years ago. Because of this ever increasing volume and complexity of information, even the trained student finds the time required thoroughly to examine a topic in an unfamiliar field almost prohibitive, while aggressive minds not accustomed to using books are shut off from resources that might multiply their effectiveness many fold.

(4) *Basic Features of an Organization of Knowledge for Adults*

The ultimate nature of an organization calculated to make knowledge wieldy and appropriable for general use must of course be determined by industrious experimentation. There is, however, one principle that will certainly prove to be fundamental: *Any organization for this purpose must place its chief*

emphasis on such skilful adaptations as shall render the necessary information suited to the recipient and to his needs.

Whether for adolescent or adult use, it is probably possible so to prepare and make available the knowledge that we now possess that the average rational individual can apply for information or instruction in any item that may serve his purpose, and receive it, if not as promptly, at least as satisfactorily, say, as he may purchase at a railroad station a ticket that will see him through to any destination on the line. As was discovered in many an educational enterprise during the war, it is a question chiefly of the suitable preparation and handling of information and of its skilful administration in the interests of the enquirer. This presupposes a thorough knowledge of the latter's character and requirements, and reduces the problem so nearly to that which confronts the schoolmaster that one may best turn thither for a brief elucidation.

The enormous increase in the diffusion of knowledge through schools during the past century has run parallel with the development of two kinds of discovery, and has been largely contingent upon them: One of these has been the progressive recognition and definition of mental and emotional traits, characteristics and types of reaction in pupils of various ages, temperaments and conditions of life; the other has been the progressive trial and testing of an almost infinite number of adaptations of important knowledge to the varied and peculiar combinations of character and mentality so disclosed. Without these enabling resources, education in schools could have reached but a small group. One has only to imagine what would result from the application of the ancient rigid curriculum and logical method in Latin grammar and formal mathematics to the pupils of a modern high school! Mental training and the discipline of clear thinking, which were formerly sought solely in the content of traditional subjects, are as widely necessary as ever, but they are needs that run parallel to the informational need, and are not to be confused with it. The sharp attention that is properly their due in no way invalidates the truth that any body of ideas is assimilated just in so far as its elements are discriminately applied in view of the particular background and mental state presented by any individual pupil.

Hence the paramount importance of skilful teaching. Indeed, the criticisms of modern schooling from top to bottom—its per-

functoriness, its machine processes, its superficiality, its frequent eagerness for spectacular variety, its tolerance of irrelevant activities, its sacrifice of serious moral standards—all of these weaknesses, wherever they exist, are traceable directly to conditions that result in neglect of the one thing needful, namely, the free, unhampered performance of a person who knows the material to be taught, and who understands and is devoted to youthful minds.

The significance of all of this school experience in dealing with the general problem of diffusing knowledge among adults is profound. The school, to be sure, has certain factitious elements presumably invented or applied in order to render the acquisition of knowledge either rapid or economical. The constraint of school and class organization, the formalized method, the personal rivalry and emulation, the diplomas, degrees and prizes, the family and social sanctions—all of these are extraneous to the task actually in hand, and often greatly impede it. On the contrary, the inculcation of ideas in the adult who is not in school is free from such distraction, and the problem for the community at large is in this respect greatly simplified. Here the teacher's success is measured by the extent to which each individual may be confronted with what he most desires to know in that form in which he can most completely appropriate it. The attitude of such a one is more nearly that of the precious, but usually diminutive, school group that gathers about the teacher after class to push the subject further, and shows an active hunger that brings to the teacher his best moments. The adult knows beyond question, what is still often unclear to the youth, that his satisfactions depend upon his own mastered resources, and is most appreciative of that which leads most directly to their mastery.

Because of this simplified problem the great increase in understanding of how minds operate and what materials best suit certain conditions of thought and experience has had immediate and far-reaching application in the diffusion of knowledge at large, and the effect has been striking. In journalism and commercial advertising, for example, the results achieved through an application of simple psychological principles are too numerous and too well known to require enumeration. Every form of "propaganda," whether openly direct or cunningly subtle, owes its success to the same factors. In every considerable organi-

zation having continued dealings with the public, an officer, or a whole division, is set apart for conducting the necessary "publicity"; and so important is it to know the state of mind of the individuals to be affected and to adjust the material in hand accurately to that state of mind that the execution of this service is often held responsible for the success or failure of the enterprise.

In a less spectacular but no less pervasive fashion the same forces are at work revising the whole field of communicable knowledge with a view to its effective consumption. Because of segregation according to age, the school community represents a series of relatively homogeneous capacity—and interest-groups, although wide variations are recognized. The community at large, on the other hand, is extraordinarily diverse; it is a unit only in its broadly adult point of view, and requires analysis of personal predilection and educability that is often as baffling as it is varied. Yet wherever seriously undertaken it has generally proved true that for each rational mind knowledge can be so appropriately prepared that it will "take"; an enlightened community apparently has the power, if it chooses, to see that each individual member is informed according to his capacity.

Illustrations of this effort to adapt important knowledge to special types of users may be drawn readily from projects in which the Carnegie Corporation is now cooperating. Thus the American Society for the Control of Cancer bends a goodly portion of its energies to stating what is now reliably known about cancer, and to publishing this information as widely as possible not only among physicians, but in simple, non-technical terms also among laymen. The American Child Health Association is essentially a demonstration and "propaganda" agency, and has put exceptional pedagogical skill into the literature and other publicity with which it seeks to create public sentiment for child health. The Immigrant Publication Society studies carefully the need and point of view of the newly arrived immigrant, and assembles in a variety of forms and in many languages the facts that will be of most service to him in making his way in a strange country.

In the field of economics alone three so-called research organizations have received funds from the Corporation, all of which make it their chief function to assemble and interpret available economic data, and to set forth their conclusions in

such form as directly to affect the conduct of the average intelligent citizen. Thus the National Bureau of Economic Research recently issued a compact and authoritative estimate of the income of the United States—a notable antidote for the misinformation of the average soap-box orator. The Institute for Research in Land Economics makes studies, and is preparing to issue bulletins that should be of value to purchasers of real estate and securities of public utilities. The Institute of Economics at Washington is placing its major emphasis, not on gathering fresh facts, but on furnishing trustworthy interpretations of existing data that concern important economic problems.

These and hundreds of other agencies like them, together with a multitude of independent authors, are turning out daily a great amount of material suited to the varying needs of various types of individuals, and in some cases bearing on the fundamental requirements of all individuals. Most of this product trickles through publishers' notices, book reviews, news items, and into libraries and title-lists where, for lack of a suitable distributing medium, it soon lies smothered and useless so far as the great majority of the population are concerned. Meanwhile the questions that it could answer, the ambitions and struggles that it could promote and assist, the unrecognized needs and opportunities that it could reveal are teeming in the minds of men who either know no recourse for satisfaction, or have no time for a laborious search. The daily losses in energy and material that result from sheer ignorance on the part of otherwise intelligent persons of how to avail themselves of the contents of books must be colossal beyond all calculation.

(5) *A Community Intelligence Service*

The remedy for this situation is simple and promising. Strong tendencies now apparent in many progressive cities indicate the ultimate development in most communities of an institution where a great range of useful information available in print may be secured authoritatively and quickly. It will be a center as familiar to every inhabitant as the local post-office, and as inevitably patronized. It will constitute the central intelligence service of the town not only for "polite" literature, but for every commercial and vocational field of information that it may prove practicable to enter. Merchants will find there catalogues and trade lists; builders and plumbers, the

technical books of their crafts; students, old or young, the orderly progress of books or materials in any important study; clergymen, the best works and periodicals dealing with religion; motorists, the latest road maps and touring guides; and artists, both technical works and comprehensive collections of pictures.

Obviously such an institution in a small town will not possess an extensive collection of books and materials, but it will be in close working connection with towns and cities where such collections are, and where answers to questions, photostat copies of reference matter, and books on loan can be speedily secured at a trifling fee. With such connections the resources of a great part of the country may be made available for a relatively small circle.

Most towns of five thousand inhabitants now maintain a good high school and a considerable number of well-educated teachers for a small group of adolescent youth. It is rather absurd to suppose that a town even of this size cannot make corresponding provision for its entire adult population when it perceives what a service of no larger proportions adjusted to its adult needs might mean. At present such a community typically offers no local facilities dealing with important knowledge and information aside from a weekly newspaper, a few churches, one or two moving-picture houses, a woman's club, and, if it is fortunate, a library passively open for a few hours on week-day afternoons. The bulk of the town's new ideas are derived from newspapers and periodical literature that originate outside, that are subscribed for by a few interested minds, and that have no evident bearing upon the concerns of the locality.

Yet all the activities of such a community are going vigorously forward on a competitive basis; the adult motives for the application of appropriate ideas are strong and alert; there is a large amount of leisure or wasted time; and the community is usually a stable, intelligent, homogeneous unit capable of united action. In general, conditions are favorable for mature and purposive behavior.

It is the ideas that are lacking in this situation; not the will to use them. Persons are needed in advantageous positions of leadership, not pledged to a special "cause," but set to watch the people at work, to study their ways, to discover helpful ideas that they can appreciate, and to direct their at-

tention either casually or systematically to the wealth of serviceable things in print. This, to be sure, is putting the community to school, but in a manner completely in keeping with the methods, desires and requirements of the adult, and not in an imitative transfer of the procedure characteristic of school and college. Such procedure will doubtless have its place, but the principle of successful approach to the practical educational service of adults will probably prove to be of quite a different sort.

(a) *An Intelligence Personnel*

The conspicuous and indispensable feature of such an institution as has been proposed is a well-specialized personal service, precisely as this is the *sine qua non* of a successful college. The purpose of an intelligence service is first to overcome the reluctance people have to seeking information, and later to maintain their interest and support by supplying just the information required in the form in which it can best be utilized by the person in question and in a manner that invites repetition. This is a task for an expert possessing personal tact, quick intellectual sympathies and appreciation, a thorough knowledge of a certain field of material, precision and discrimination of thought, and the power promptly to organize results.

These are not excessive requirements and can be met provided the respective fields of knowledge are made sufficiently narrow. Many reference agencies that now exist defeat their purpose by placing in charge a staff assigned to the entire universe. Only the vaguest and most casual service can be expected of such "experts." Applicants for information are handled on the principle of turn and turn about, a procedure that is comparable to rotating courses alphabetically among the instructors on a college faculty. Yet the demands for differentiation both in the extent of ground covered and the peculiar treatment required by each successive applicant in the adult group are far more exacting than in any college. The reference expert at an adult intelligence center must command all of the college teacher's familiarity with the literature of a strictly limited field plus the power which the college teacher may, and often does, lack completely, namely, the power speedily to read his applicant's mental equipment and point of view,

and to sense intuitively the character of his personal need. Failure here is not a case where the careless student can be held accountable, but where a shortsighted instructor fails to interpret an interest and to supply the demand. The present result of such failure is that serious enquirers simply do not apply for such trifling service as is to be had.

It is important that such a person as has been described be accessible easily, and not after long waits and explanations by reference up the line through subordinates who cannot help the enquirer. It is important that the service go further than placing a pile of strange books or other printed material on the table before an applicant. The acquisition of knowledge is forbidding for many chiefly because it is housed in books, and the extraction thereof is itself an art. In certain fields, and to some extent in all fields, this inhibition operates on all students. For trained workers with books the technique of limited departments of knowledge soon becomes automatic and rapid, and should be at the enquirer's disposal. Very many applications can be answered directly, by telephone or in writing, in terms of ideas instead of books, with perhaps a reference to a single book where the idea is best stated. The net result of all such service should be to simplify and invite instead of to bewilder and repel; each patron should come to realize that all the resources of the institution will be fully utilized in giving him promptly what he needs, if that can be discovered.

(8) *Special Information Services*

These are of three general types, of which the first is naturally by far the most important and extensive. It consists in advising the individual citizen either by personal card, group notice, newspaper listings, or public bulletins of some sort, that specific books or information, in which he is believed to be interested, are at his disposal. Many libraries have personal lists as already noted in the case of Pittsburgh; the "interest file" of the Portland, Oregon, Library and the "hobby" lists of the Indianapolis Teachers' Library follow the same principle. Large use is made of professional groups, unions, clubs and so forth, to reach the individuals composing them. Several libraries clip the vital statistics in the newspapers for suggestions as to mailing notices of good books on care of infants and home-making in general. The Indianapolis Library depends heavily on an enormous series of multigraphed book-lists—con-

cise, helpful, interesting, attractive and varied. These lists are addressed to definite tastes or occupations. They are used as

> "stuffers in packages, correspondence and pay envelopes; as enclosures in theatre and convention programs; as stimulators accompanying library and educational talks, as reminders of library service at luncheons and throughout the schools; as bookmarks and guides to better reading at the libraries, etc., etc. They are distributed from "Take one home" tables in the library and its branches, and are placed in all sorts of places, from cigar stands to bank counters."

The analysis of community interests with relation to the library that an extensive service of this sort presupposes has only just begun, and is susceptible of enormous development. In the case of the great majority of the men, women and children, if they can for some purpose be brought even occasionally to a center where books are used and valued, their attachment is likely to follow, and the influence of the library as a disseminator of ideas becomes immense. Everything depends upon the skill with which personal contacts are made and followed up, and success requires a large and capable staff.

A second type of information service is largely a matter of social convenience—a sort of first aid to the public; but its value in fixing attention and in habituating enquirers to depend upon the library as an unfailing community resource is considerable.

For this purpose the library prepares itself to give all sorts of current information not requiring extensive book reference and including fugitive local items. It keeps a complete up-to-date directory of all events going on in the city day by day, as at St. Louis. It knows all the clubs and organizations of the vicinity, their officers and activities, as at Newark, New Jersey. Here, too, is a list of local halls and auditoriums available for various purposes; even an inventory of local speakers and the subjects with which they deal. One provides free notarial service. A bureau of this sort at Boston has telephone and street directories of the nearby cities and towns, railway and steamship time tables and guides, town and road maps, and catalogues of schools and colleges. Its files contain many features of special interest, such as the vocational file,

"which consists of some 250 folders each containing information—clippings, school catalogues, pamphlets—in regard to a particular vocation and the means of becoming fitted for it; the Congressional file, with material on important matters before Congress; the current events file with material on outstanding events assembled for the use of students; and other similar material."

Facilities of this kind are the outgrowth of an altered conception of a public library's function. Instead of the library becoming a place of storage for certain traditional bodies of knowledge contained in books merely for their own sake, it becomes the warehouse and market exchange for all permanently important or temporarily useful information, in whatever form, that a given community may find to its advantage; in place of a remote temple of occasional and select learning, the enquirer finds a busy center of practical community affairs, attracting every one by its convenient supply of some practical detail that he must have, and eventually holding him by its constant suggestion of the more significant knowledge that will extend his horizon. Residents of cities where diverse railroad facilities converge without exception at a central point realize how greatly this fact alone simplifies and economizes one important aspect of life; a trip to the coast or to a suburb falls into the same well-known formula. An identical release from confusion would apparently result, were a city to assemble at some handy point the material for its actual current mental needs, however trivial, and organize it, together with that substantial knowledge that suits its more occasional requirements, into a consistent whole, instead of fumbling for it in a dozen quarters as at present. In that case, for either stranger or citizen a trip to the library would unlock the whole combination. This again is mainly a problem of efficient personnel.

ACCESS TO SHELVES

However undesirable a general access to the library's reference collection may be, it is certain that the privilege of examining large sections of book shelves must be granted to advanced students,—experiences in the general book stacks will sometimes curb the ambitions of the purely curious who clamor for the opportunity to satisfy their own wants.

STUDENT ACCESS TO BOOK COLLECTIONS—EXTENT AND METHODS

The present article was based upon a survey of about twenty college and university libraries, made by Mr. Russell B. Miller of the Ohio Wesleyan University. It was read before the College Section of the Ohio Library Association, Columbus, Ohio, April 18, 1919. The author, George Franklin Strong, was born in Kents Hill, Maine, August 12, 1882. He graduated from Wesleyan University in 1903; from the New York State Library School in 1909. Mr. Strong filled the office of librarian at the University of North Dakota, 1904 to 1908; at Boston University, 1909 to 1910, and has been librarian of Adelbert College, Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio, since 1910. He was active in camp library work during the World War.

Last winter Mr. Russell B. Miller of the Ohio Wesleyan University collected from about twenty college and university libraries a good deal of information concerning their experience with open and closed shelves. He expects to make use of this information in dealing with his own problem at Ohio Wesleyan University. The reports from the libraries with which he corresponded bear especially upon the question of access to the book stack.

In agreement with his own liberal library principles, Mr. Miller has given me the privilege of "open access" to the facts which he has accumulated. These facts, relating to twenty representative college and university libraries, can be grouped so as to answer five questions, as follows:

1. To what extent are students admitted to the stack?

2. To what extent are students given access to collections apart from the stack?

3. To what extent does student access necessitate supervision of the stack?

4. Does student access to the stack lighten the work at the loan desk?

5. Does student access result in much disarrangement and loss of books?

The twenty libraries whose communications furnish answers to these questions include those of two great universities—Michigan and Illinois; a number of medium-sized libraries in this part of the country—Ohio State, Oberlin, Ohio Wesleyan, Adelbert, Cincinnati, Miami, Indiana, Purdue, Northwestern and Syracuse; the libraries of two women's colleges—Vassar and Wellesley; and a number of college libraries of the New England type—Bowdoin, Dartmouth, Amherst, Williams, Brown and Colgate.

1. To what extent are students admitted to the stack in these libraries?

Six libraries freely admit all students: namely, Dartmouth, Williams, Colgate, Adelbert, Vassar and Wellesley. The librarians of these six ultra-liberal libraries express themselves as satisfied with the arrangement. At Vassar the stacks are grouped around tables in alcove fashion. Miss Reed, the Librarian, says: "We would not abandon our plan under any consideration. It is very interesting to administer, though it makes more trouble for the staff."

Three other libraries admit to the stack all students who specifically apply for that privilege: namely, Syracuse; Amherst, where the student signs a blank specifying what he wishes to consult; and Bowdoin, where 19,000 volumes are on open shelves and the number of students applying for further privilege is not large.

Brown and Oberlin are nearly as liberal. Brown sets aside one floor of its stack, with 17,000 volumes, as a students' library, and admits students to the remainder of the stack by card upon a professor's recommendation. Oberlin admits to its stack all seniors and any other students who show good reason, as well as all graduate and theological students.

Purdue admits students on request if they declare a specific purpose. Ohio State and Miami admit students to their stacks by card upon recommendation of a professor. At Miami there are seldom more than twenty cards in force at one time.

There remain six of the reporting libraries which find it necessary to conserve their books by a more definitely restricted

access; and these, it may be said, represent the practice of practically all our large university libraries.

At Illinois, graduate students are admitted to the stack, and other students by special permit. The Librarian says that in a library of only 100,000 volumes he would encourage the students to browse in the stack, but thinks that undergraduates do not profit much by browsing in the stack of a much larger library.

At Michigan about six per cent of the 7500 students (that is, 450 students) are allowed access to the stack. In their new building all graduate students and a limited number of undergraduates will have access to the greater part of the stack; while all undergraduates will be able to consult freely about 30,000 volumes in the reading and reference collections.

Ohio Wesleyan, Cincinnati and Northwestern admit to the stack only graduate students and those doing special research work. Indiana admits graduate students and, upon special recommendation of an instructor, nearly all upper classmen—about 175 permits in all at one time. The librarian thinks, however, that this is too liberal a policy.

2. To what extent are students given full access to collections which are apart from the stack?

All the twenty reporting libraries naturally possess reference collections which may be freely used. Michigan, Illinois and Syracuse report that in the main their departmental libraries are free of access to students; while at Adelbert a minority of the departmental collections are thus open.

3. To what extent does student access necessitate supervision of the stack?

All reporting libraries intimate that very little additional stack supervision is necessitated by open access to the shelves. One librarian thinks that free access in a co-educational institution would mean much supervision.

4. Does student access to the stack lighten the work at the loan desk?

Five libraries say yes, without giving much indication of the amount of work saved: namely, Williams, Brown, Colgate, Adelbert and Wellesley. For Adelbert I make a guess that one half the time of one assistant is saved.

Four libraries say no: Michigan, Miami, Syracuse and Vassar. Vassar, which is the only one of these four libraries to carry out fully an open shelf policy, says that the work of the staff is undoubtedly increased thereby. Four libraries are dubious.

5. Does student access result in much disarrangement and loss of books?

Ten libraries say that they suffer but little inconvenience and loss in these respects. Two of these ten libraries make it plain to students that they must not replace books on the shelves.

The two largest libraries—Michigan and Illinois—report considerable disarrangement. Brown and Wellesley suffer to some degree. Syracuse loses but little from the stack, though more from the departmental libraries. Indiana reports a good deal of disarrangement, considerable unrecorded borrowing and some loss. Cincinnati has suffered to such an extent as to make it necessary to do away with student access to the stack.

It is of interest to note that student access to shelves has been encouraged in various college and university libraries for some forty years. In 1876 the idea seems to have been a novelty so far as the larger college libraries were concerned. A student of that period, after complaining of the great difficulty of using a certain prominent college library by means of a catalog, wrote that he knew the library contained plenty of good books, for he got thru a window one Sunday and spent the whole day there.

In 1880 the then librarian of Brown University reported that with 50,000 volumes on open shelves, not a single one had been lost in the previous year and but few misplaced.

In 1894 Mr. Koopman, then as now the Librarian of Brown, advocated, by an article in the *Library Journal,* a students' library which should form the undergraduates' portion of a university library. The idea was carried out almost immediately thereafter by Columbia, Cornell and Harvard, and later by other institutions.

In 1907 Mr. Fletcher of Amherst reported in *Public Libraries* that very few college libraries at that time opened their book rooms to students, though Amherst had permitted student access for twenty-five years.

In 1908 Dr. Richardson of Princeton in an A. L. A. paper, argued that the only real solution, for a large university li-

brary, of the very difficult problem of student access, is found by providing for them select libraries of the most used books in all departments of literary knowledge.

A letter written to Mr. Miller last December by Mr. Bishop, Librarian of the University of Michigan Library refers to the difficulty of the same problem as follows:

To my mind there is no more vital force in the education of students than intimate and immediate personal contact with the whole of the University Library. In my own case, I feel that the privilege of admission to the stacks, which was given me in my last two years as student here, did more to produce a scholarly attitude towards my work than any other single advantage offered by the University. Such intimate, personal contact, requiring discrimination in the choice of every book taken from the shelf, infallibly produces a wholly different attitude towards the printed page than that engendered from the use of a selection, no matter how excellently the selecting has been done. It seems to me that one of the chief aims of university education is to make the student familiar with the literature of the great subjects of instruction, and to teach him to make his own judgments on the literature.

There are, however, extremely practical difficulties in the way of free admission for the whole student body to the entire contents of the book stacks of any modern library. These difficulties are so real that I found myself unable to so plan a new library building for the University of Michigan as to solve them. They are partly structural, and partly financial, and partly administrative. Of course, I need not enumerate them. The best we could do here, as we were obliged to make use of our old book stack, has been to provide wide aisles between (4½ feet between centres) and wide aisles around, the book stacks, and a more than generous provision of tables in the immediate vicinity of the books themselves. We have followed the system of stalls used in the Widener Library at Harvard, and have, I think, improved upon it.

Any one who can plan a library building to house half a million or more volumes for an institution of six to ten thousand students, and arrange to have unlimited free access to the book-shelves for the entire student body, or even the greater part of it, will produce an advance in library science and higher education incomparably greater than anything which has been done up to the present time. I confess that the problem is beyond me, except by the use of practically unlimited funds for building and for administration.

Mr. Bishop's remarks make it plain that the larger university libraries cannot hope to permit the majority of students to enjoy a comprehensive use of the stack.

In summing up the problem of open access, I draw the following conclusions, which are perhaps open to some dispute:

1. The stacks of most of the smaller college and university libraries (say, up to 100,000 volumes) should be open to all students.

2. As the size of the library increases above 100,000 volumes, restrictions must gradually be imposed: such as, the requirement of the use of an application blank, or a permit issued upon an instructor's recommendation, or a permit for pursuing special work. To distinguish between the privileges of upperclassmen and underclassmen does not seem necessary. Graduate students will always, of course, be specially favored.

3. Meanwhile, as increasing restrictions are being imposed upon undergraduate use of the stack, there should be built up for the special use of undergraduates a student's library of the best and most useful books in all fields, starting with a general reference collection of the usual kind. The student's library in a large institution may be expected to contain from 15,000 to 50,000 volumes, and may be, as at Columbia, in a building separate from the library building.

4. Departmental libraries at large institutions should be open to all students and most of the books found in departmental libraries need not be duplicated in the student's library.

ON BROWSING, BY A BOOK-WORM

Browsing among book shelves could have no more worthy or agreeable advocate. The attainments of Professor James Kendall Hosmer were most unusual and varied. He had long been associated with the scholarly and literary world before a library claimed him.

Professor Hosmer was born in Northfield, Massachusetts, January 29, 1834; he graduated at Harvard University, in the class of 1855, and received a master's degree there in 1867. In 1859 he graduated from the Divinity School. Honorary degrees were later conferred upon him by the University of Missouri, Washington University and Harvard University. From 1860 to 1866 he was pastor of the Unitarian Church at Deerfield, Massachusetts, though serving in the Civil War during the same period. He was professor of rhetoric and English at Antioch College, 1866 to 1872; professor of English and history at the University of Missouri, from 1872 to 1874, and professor of English and German literature at Washington University, 1874 to 1892. During the last professorship he was an active and interested member of the committee that then had charge of the Public School Library, under the Board of Education, and in 1892 he was chosen librarian of the Public Library at Minneapolis, serving until 1904. He was president of the American Library Association, 1902 to 1903. His writings cover as great a field. Professor Hosmer died on the eleventh of May, 1927.

The writer of the present paper is a worm,—a member of that class of the great family of annulata, known as the book worms. Hitherto the worms have been the most diffident of creatures, submitting to be squelched by every passing foot,

and to be contumeliously cited on all occasions by human kind, as the very type of abjectness. Since Darwin, however, in the case of our kin, the earth-worms, has done a great work of vindication, proving that they possess no slight intelligence, and that upon their hitherto despised activity rests the existence of the entire animal and vegetable world, the annulata in general have plucked up courage. Why do we need to be abashed in any presence? Why should not the book worms have a hearing even before a convention of librarians? The present worm trusts that his effort before this august assembly will be received in a spirit of fairness,—and he will not be captured to serve as fish-bait, or crushed by any sudden blow from the gavel of the presiding officer, or expelled from the apartment by the insidious application of any form of vermifuge. All professions tend to become narrow and technical. For ministers, lawyers, teachers, doctors, it is healthy to be struck now and then by a breeze from outside. Possibly even through a worm-hole an air may creep, which will ventilate, in a way not quite unsalutary, the atmosphere of the deliberations of bibliographers.

From the vermicular point of view, what is often looked upon as the librarian's first task, namely, to keep safe the literary matters entrusted to his keeping, is to be esteemed of comparatively small importance; while, on the other hand, what many hold to be the librarian's second duty, namely, to make access to these matters as convenient as possible to book worms, and such others as may crave food of this kind, is of paramount significance. The duty of *guarding* books, the present worm, like his kind in general, looks upon derisively. We are sworn allies of the mice; the spiders are congenial to us, with whose webs we gladly festoon ourselves, as we perform in alcoves our great work of perforation. We are, however, not without candor, I hope. Conceding something to the prejudices of the unenlightened, I admit that the librarian must be, while facilitating access to his books, to some extent a guardian. How to strike a mean? How combine safety for a collection while respecting sufficiently the demands of book worms and others? This is the point, I conceive, upon which the librarian should concentrate his attention, and I humbly submit that it is both fair and expedient for this body to understand and weigh the vermicular view. The moderate demand of the present worm for himself, and the great fraternity he represents, is that they

may have the privilege of *browsing*. The book worms, like cattle in general (surely, with horns, and tail, and a genius for humping not surpassed even by the bison, we are cattle), find their chief felicity in browsing. What terms shall I use in order to magnify duly before my audience this great matter of browsing?

Once, while boring my way through a ponderous tome, written, as I took pains to ascertain, by one Bacon, I penetrated to a sentence, which from internal evidence I am persuaded was especially designed to serve as advice to creatures of my kind. I quote from memory, but am sure of having caught the spirit of the passage referred to: "Some books," says Bacon, "are to be brushed merely by the feelers; others to be touched by the mandibles in a mere cursory nibble; into still others, you may expediently work your way in a considerable perforation; while, in case of a few, the demands of duty will not be satisfied until they are thoroughly honeycombed in a labyrinth of burrows." What is here advised, I conceive, is simply to browse. One catches a bite here in a momentary twist; elsewhere, he feeds at length, the pasture proving sweet and nutritious. Browsing is the proper Baconian method of reading. The rapture of having at command an entire alcove! As you pass along the shelves, it is enough, in the case of most books, merely to touch the title page with the antennæ; with others, a paragraph may here and there be tasted; as to a few, content does not come until a chapter has been devoured; while, for two or three the conscience will not be appeased until they have been chewed and digested from cover to cover. Who can tell what books he wants without preliminary tasting? Titles often mislead, and never do more than hint at the contents. Time and again I should have starved had the catalogue and librarian's desk stood between me and my pabulum; time and again I have failed to be adequately nourished until, having been turned loose among the shelves, by a nibble here, and a bolder bite there, I have hit at last upon the exact morsel I required. I assure my audience that (speaking always as I do from the vermicular point of view) no librarian performs his task in a proper manner unless, in the midst of his anxiety for the safety of his charge, he at the same time affords abundant liberty to browse—a freedom of access to books far too rarely found, I fear.

I have sometimes, indeed, found libraries the rules of which were as wise as if they had been made by the book worms themselves. In July, 1886, crawling into the famous portals of the British Museum, I took my sinuous way to the library, there presenting a note of introduction from a brother book worm to Mr. Richard Garnett, at that time a high official, and since then promoted to be "Keeper of the Printed Books,"—the chief librarianship. To receive a card of admission, it was only necessary to be vouched for as respectable by some reputable citizen of London—a requirement waived in my own case, for the letter of my congener was held to be sufficient. I was at once led into the main room, a vast circular space surmounted by a dome scarcely inferior in dimensions to that of St. Paul's Cathedral. Through this, upon long desks radiating from the circular table of the superintendent in the centre like the spokes of a wheel from a hub, fell an amount of light to true book-worms quite superfluous, but a concession necessary, no doubt, to mere human weakness. From the base of the dome to the floor below, the space was unbroken by windows, and occupied about the entire circumference of the room by concentric series of shelves containing the reference library. The term "book of reference" has, in the British Museum, a most liberal interpretation. The number of such books must rise into the hundreds of thousands. In the department of English history, with which I was especially concerned, were not only dictionaries and encyclopedias, biographical, chronological, etc., but every standard work upon English history, together with a great many of the documents which are to be regarded as the sources. In other departments of knowledge, apparently, the term "reference book" was interpreted with equal liberality. To all these hundred thousand and more of books under the dome, access on the part of those admitted to the room was quite unrestricted. They were not behind glass or wire, or in any way shut in. All present, whether mere humble book-worms or great gods of the literary firmament, with or without advice and help from the attendants, were free to browse as they pleased along the shelves. As regards the million or more of volumes not in the main room, access was made almost equally easy. As is usual in libraries, anything asked for was brought by an attendant; as is *not* usual, the worm or the god, as the case might be, if wishing it, was conducted out to the shelves them-

selves. "Where," thought I, "shall I find for myself the juiciest banquet, most appetizingly seasoned with mold and mildew, and where I can be most sure of falling into the companionship of honest perforators like myself?" In a collection, I judged, known as the Thomasson Tracts, some 4,000 volumes, in which are bound up the fugitive literature of the 17th century,—sermons, political pamphlets, news-sheets, ballads, broad-sides, plays, even the hand-bills of the time. I was taken into the room in which they were contained, and allowed to inspect them on the shelves. As I could not conveniently bring my mandibles to bear upon the feast as it stood thus arranged, I was placed close at hand, at an ample table, and the volumes were brought to me, a shelf-full at a time, twenty or thirty in number. There, with the help of a careful index—the bookworm's bill of fare—the present reptile bored at his leisure through some hundreds of volumes, biting his way forward on this side and that, and rolling under his tongue many a most satisfactory morsel, which he could never have come upon but for browsing. So far as my purpose was concerned, the great collection was put, as it were, into my clutches, the evident study of the management being to content every library appetite, however voracious, with the greatest possible expedition and convenience. The main room every day was thronged, crowded sometimes uncomfortably, with book worms, and those having no use for books except to verify a reference or kill an idle hour. All were free to go to the shelves of the main room; and to the spaces behind, to which reference has been made, all persons with a serious purpose, certainly all worms of sincere mind and sharp appetite, were freely admitted. There are, to be sure, certain rigid restrictions. Nothing short of an act of parliament would enable one to carry a book away from the Museum or to set foot within it except during the proper hours. A Cerberus at the door makes sure that each visitor has his card; and an army of attendants, while helping you in every way, watch carefully for thieves and mutilators. Within certain lines, however, the widest freedom prevails, and it is hard to see how 2,000,000 books, with regard for their preservation, can be made to afford a better field for browsing.

But it is time to look at home. How fare the browsers in our American public libraries? The present worm recalls an experience in one such library, located in a famous city. Enter-

ing its door, I found myself presently in a lofty hall, the floor of which was in great part occupied by the card catalogue, contained in innumerable drawers, all lettered alphabetically. The hundreds of thousands of books in the library were visible only dimly and afar off, in alcoves at the side, carefully closed from entrance by screens of iron-work. To these alcoves there was no access, except in very special cases. To obtain a book, a title must be written on a card, with the name and residence of the worm attached; this must be presented at a desk, the book in due time to be handed out, and perused at a table. My appetite was keen, but precisely what viand I required I was not sure. Could I not look along the shelves, try here and there, according to my nature: in a word browse, until I hit upon the exact bit? By no means. The books in their distant isolation coldly turned their backs upon me; they could only be touched on the lofty shelf by the official hand. I went from drawer to drawer, accumulating my list of titles. I presented myself at the desk among a throng of applicants, and, after a weary wait, found myself at the hole through the screen. An attendant confronted me with an unsympathetic face. The glitter in his eye was as hard and pitiless as that from the diamond stud of the hotel clerk. He evidently at once recognized the applicant as a reptile, and the self-respect of your worm, not at that time having been fortified by a perusal of Darwin's treatise, was quite inadequate to the situation. He writhed as only a worm can writhe, but presented his list, and, after another weary wait, received his volumes, with which he retired to his table. The books, selected almost at a venture, with only such slight hints as the cards conveyed, were none of them satisfactory. I had again recourse to the cards, made out another list, congealed myself once more before the ice of the attendant's countenance, returning with a new pile to the table, only to find them as unsatisfactory as the former. O, for fifteen minutes' browsing along the shelves! But it was out of the question. "I will go to the reading-room," said I, "and see what is new in the periodicals. Running over the tables of contents as they lie displayed on the desks, I can easily see what I want. I can read here a paragraph, here a page, here a whole article if I choose, and so skim the cream of the month by a cursory dipping into a dozen or more, in the course of an hour or two." How vain the expectation! In the

periodical room, reviews and magazines were out of sight, in a carefully closed case, before which stood a guard, the frigidity of whose demeanor fairly produced a fit of torpor. A sight of the pamphlets could only be obtained by an elaborate application for each, a ponderous proceeding involving all sorts of tedious waiting and explanation. No quick browsing along an open display of the fresh pasture of the month. The appetite for it soon broke down beneath the delay and inconvenience in getting at the pabulum. The heart of the present worm sank within him. He looped off at last to a second-hand bookstore, under an old church, where, having propitiated the proprietor by a ten-cent purchase, he foraged unrestrained along the shelves, with far more satisfaction than he had been able to obtain in the great public library.

Such amount of restriction as has been described, is no doubt, unusual. I know of another public library in another large city, the system prevailing in which offers some mitigation of the rigor. Here the treasures can no more be come at by the general public of book worms and others, than in the former instance. They stand in cases of glass which are always carefully locked, and no volume can be touched except by the intervention of an attendant. The essayist regards it, however, as some alleviation of the hardship that he and his kind may pass before these locked doors, and through the glass darkly (sometimes in that smoky atmosphere very darkly) read the lettering upon the backs. Access to the shelves is perhaps not entirely out of the question. A worm of pertinacity and distinction may, if it be a quiet time in the library, have a case opened, and with an attendant at his elbow,—possibly, in rare instances, quite unattended,—be allowed to taste, chew and digest as he chooses. Such conduct, however, is certainly not encouraged, and the soul of any sensitive worm becomes abashed within him at the thought that he is the mark of special courtesy which must cause more or less trouble. In the reading-room of the library the same half-way relaxation of the bond prevails. While magazines, reviews and the more elaborate weeklies are kept shut up in a closet, only issued one by one upon an elaborately written application, the newspapers lie in files, open to all, offering to the brotherhood of browsers all needful opportunity.

The book worm knows of only one public library whose methods he, in his present character of spokesman of the browsers, can thoroughly approve. This library, the third American library touched upon in this brief review, has just been housed in a new building, beautiful and in every way well adapted to its purpose. Every household in the city of 200,000 in which it stands, can have a membership without pay, and there is a broad hospitality for strangers. Users of the library for the most part receive and return their books at a desk, consulting the catalogue for those which they wish, and presenting a card, the certificate that the easy conditions have been complied with. All, however, who have reached years of discretion, and can satisfy the librarian that they have a serious purpose, above all the great fraternity of book worms, who must browse or starve, can be admitted to "shelf-room privileges," be allowed to go to the shelves upon which the books stand, where they may disport their joints, and perforate as their appetites may require. The shelf-room is a spacious, airy, well-lighted hall, in which the shelves are arranged in alcoves, uninclosed by screens either of glass or wire; chairs, tables, pens and ink, conveniences for note-taking, are at hand. Here the happy worm may work his will, applying his feelers superficially, as his fancy may dictate, or laboriously bringing to bear his powers of excavation, if a serious task opens before him. What books the burrower displaces, he is expected not to put back himself, but to leave on the tables, an attendant restoring each according to the library marks. As regards the reading-room, a similar liberty prevails. Newspapers in their files lie free upon racks, periodicals in alphabetical order upon open desks. Each visitor may browse as he please along the row,—now straightening his spine or rolling easily forward on his rings (according as he is a vertebrate or an annulate) while in two minutes he runs down the table of contents of half a dozen magazines; now burying himself in an arm-chair, or squirming into whatever position of comfort, while he fastens upon the solid article of the *Edinburgh* or the *Quarterly*. The librarian avers that this freedom of access is attended by no so great inconvenience or bad result as to make it inexpedient. Shelf-room privileges have too seldom been abused by the theft or mutilation of books to form a reason for abrogating them. The presence of worms and others in the alcoves has been no trial worth

speaking of to the unhysterical attendants; the regulation requiring that books shall be returned to the shelves by an official prevents any disarrangement. A very few times in the course of a year periodicals disappear, and now and then, on crowded days, pamphlets and newspaper files fall into a confusion which the attendant cannot rectify in a moment. But the trouble arising from this freedom of access is slight, not to be weighed for a moment, against the advantages of the plan.

I have in this paper discussed library management as it presents itself to the *vermicular* apprehension. The question is embarrassed by the circumstance that it would be quite wrong not to show a certain respect to *human* ideas and conditions. I trust I have shown a spirit of candor. The custodians of the library of the Vatican, unless report belies them, recognize only one duty, that of keeping their books safe, unconcerned by any consideration so entirely irrelevant as that the books should be used. The book worms, on the other hand, recognize their duty of browsing, regarding it in their hearts as quite irrelevant that books should be preserved. Between the Vatican and vermicular extremes, the precious brotherhood of librarians may be found at various intermediate points, too often nearer to the good Roman fathers than to my own congeners. Let the humble plea of the book worms be heard. We ask but a modicum of right. With us, it is browse or starve. We concede that our charge should be guarded; but exclude not the browsers from their fit pasture.

THE COLLECTION AND ITS CONSERVATION

Building up a collection of books, whatever its character, is a fascinating task. Conserving the collection for succeeding generations of humanity, while maintaining the usefulness of the library, is becoming increasingly difficult.

A library, it is evident, should protect books from injury for the sake of the general community; it should forestall, for example, such destruction of dictionaries, atlases or encyclopedias as occurs during an epidemic of frenzied puzzle solvers.

The offenders, however, are not confined to these annoying groups, for, in the hands of many professedly studious persons, library property is shamelessly abused even in the library building.

The disregard shown, on the part of some of the users of books, for the rights of property and the rights of others is another sign of these lawless times. The mutilation of reference books still remains one of the most serious problems of public and university libraries.

The great work of housing and conserving priceless national and state archives has been under consideration for more than fifty years. It will be achieved through legislative action stimulated by the people.

PRINCIPLES GOVERNING THE SELECTION OF A REFERENCE COLLECTION IN A UNIVERSITY LIBRARY

Mr. Willard Austen, who presented this paper at the Conference of the American Library Association in 1909, is a graduate of Cornell University, class of 1891. He was president of the New York State Library Association, 1908 to 1909, and he has been librarian of Cornell University for several years. In this article he considers the general divisions of a reference collection, the selection of books for open shelves and differentiates between research and reference work.

The law of supply and demand is operative in the world of books in much the same way as in the world of commerce, and whereas in earlier days the supply followed, a little tardily perhaps, after the demand, in these days the commercial plan of stimulating the demand by various methods is not unknown in bibliographical fields.

One of the most effective commercial methods of stimulating demand is the attractive display of goods, and librarians have found the same principle operative when applied to books. This fact has probably been a strong factor in the development of open-shelf libraries, although there are other reasons that quite justify the pulling down of the barriers. Perhaps the most apparent reason for open shelves with many persons is the ease with which books can be got when direct access is allowed, and the consequent saving of time and labor. No doubt this is also the most active principle in creating a reference library that is made up of books so frequently wanted for consultation that the usual process of getting them by means of the catalog would be well nigh intolerable in American libraries.

The first principle of selection for a reference collection in any library is undoubtedly based upon the question as to what books are so frequently wanted that they should be placed on

open shelves for ready reference. Clearly this is an indeterminate lot that may range all the way from the usual dictionaries and cyclopedias to a large library. In the make up of such a collection beyond the cyclopedic materials, the needs of the users, varying with different localities, must be a determining factor. The demands of a university community, for example, being different from those of a manufacturing community, or a metropolitan district.

In a college and university community it is possible to distinguish, on broad lines, between two different kinds of work going on simultaneously, viz., reference work and research work, ordinarily thought to be quite the same. Much they undoubtedly have in common, but viewed from the point of materials wanted, they differ in many ways. A person doing research work must, of course, be constantly making use of the usual reference works, but the reference worker may never have need of much of the material indispensable to the research worker.

For research work of a serious nature one must have access to all sources, old and modern. He may need the rarest books in the library that can be used only under supervision or he may need the last World's almanac. He may need a book that has not been wanted for the last ten years and may not be used again within the next ten years, or he may have occasion to consult a work long since discredited or positively erroneous. Not infrequently some obscure dissertation is the only thing that will serve his need. Clearly, then, all his materials are not in the class of open-shelf reference books. Nothing short of the resources of the whole library will suffice in many cases.

The readers who make most use of a reference collection are those who want the latest facts about any particular subject summarized in the most convenient form. For this particular purpose they need generally the latest authoritative work. Oftentimes such works are at the same time original sources,—the latest annual report on some subject or the latest statistical compilation—and as such are also of prime importance to the research worker. They are the tangents of these two classes of workers.

There is a third group of users whose needs are just as real, though not thought as important, that must be taken into

consideration in every college community, because the materials it requires overlap or dovetail into, as it were, the materials needed by the other groups. It consists of the general readers for cultural purposes. They are not looking for facts primarily, but they require many books that are filled with facts. Their stimulus may come in the form of collateral reading for college work or from a personal interest in some subject.

With these three classes of readers, and they practically include all the constituency of a college or university community, we may proceed to make up the open-shelf library for all users, which may be called a reference library for convenience, but it has a wider field of usefulness than the name connotes. The old theory that a reference library should comprise only standard dictionaries, cyclopedias, almanacs and a few other books similar in character, is no longer adequate to the needs. Nor does it suffice to add to this material sets of periodicals, which many libraries do, because reference work leads one into this material extensively. There is still another class of books that is constantly needed for reference work, that may at times be needed for research work, and is the main supply of the general reader. This is the great group of monographic literature, that which remains after cyclopedic and periodical literature have been counted out. Not all of such literature has a place among reference books, but the standard works of this class are indispensable there, and no reference work of a high grade can be done without them.

The three great groups, then, that must enter into the composition of a reference library are: the cyclopedias, the periodicals, and the monographic literature. The worth of such a collection, as is the case with the make-up of a general cyclopedia, lies largely in the proportion of materials included. As an otherwise good cyclopedia may be seriously discredited by the lack of a proper balance of its materials, so the value of a reference collection may be seriously impaired by the inclusion of too much of one class to the exclusion of materials of another. Many periodicals will increase the number of references one is able to get at easily, but this facility may be purchased at the cost of other and more important needs. This nice adjustment, when the space available or the funds, are limited, is the test of efficiency. And this adjusting process is not a matter that can be done once for all but is a continuous process, ever changing with the growth of literature.

As a broad general working plan, a reference library may be laid down on these lines:

1. General bibliographies, cyclopedias (including biographical, statistical and geographical cyclopedias), dictionaries, yearbooks and other cyclopedic materials, too general for subject classification.

2. Periodical literature of such a general character as experience has shown to include many references, current in literature.

3. Standard monographic works covering all branches of knowledge, classed by subjects.

The first two groups are pretty clearly defined at any one time in their range and extent. In the third group lies the possibility of indefinite extension. Into this group may be pressed the whole of a library, barring rare, out of date and unfit books. But this would result in open shelves for practically the whole library, which, of course, is not expedient nor desirable for a university library, or perhaps for any library larger than 100,000 volumes exclusive of duplicates. The make-up of such a reference collection is rather that of a selected library. In addition to the *general* cyclopedic reference works, the several special subject groups include the bibliographies, dictionaries, cyclopedias, annual reports, yearbooks, etc., of these special subjects. And in addition to these, many of which change frequently, are the constantly appearing monographs, historic and descriptive, of interest to the general reader, essential to the best reference work, and less necessary to the research worker. A considerable number of the best works on every subject, in fact it is not too much to say that all the latest authoritative work on a subject, may well be kept on the open reference shelves, one work supplying the need when another is out or temporarily in use. When kept in the stack, reference work constantly calls these books into the reading room. Why not keep them there?

The objection may be made that such a disposition of new and standard material interferes with the need of these books for home use. This would be true if the practice of keeping in the library at all times all books placed on the shelves of an open reference and reading room were adhered to. Such a practice involves much duplication, which does not wholly relieve the situation, when more than one copy is needed for out-of-the-library use, and none are really needed in the library. One

copy of many works, in fact the great majority of books, is sufficient to serve all the need that ever will be felt, providing no hard and fast rule be made to prevent shifting from one place to another as the need demands.

The feeling that the integrity of a reference collection should be maintained at all cost; that a reader accustomed to find a certain book on a certain shelf should not be disappointed, is an attractive theory, perhaps, but without good foundation in actual practice. Any reference library that is kept up to date must be frequently changed; old editions must give way to new, old works be replaced by new and better ones, the fresher the material the better. Again, the book wanted may be in use by another within the library for so long a time as effectually to prevent its use by one who thinks his need brooks no delay. These and other legitimate causes for the absence of books from their accumtomed places violate the reader's expectation quite as much as when absent for home use. To be sure, standard dictionaries, cyclopedias and other purely reference materials should always remain in the library because of their frequent use, until replaced by later works, but the monographic literature wanted for reading as well as for reference can be shifted from the place where it is less needed to the place where the need is more apparent without other results than the maximum efficiency and the minimum inconvenience.

For purposes of reference, often any one of a dozen books on a given subject will answer the need equally well, and the whole dozen are never absent at any one time. Books of such a character as experience has shown to be too frequently wanted to be allowed out of the library for more than temporary use can be plainly marked to distinguish them from those that may go out for a longer time.

This method allows all standard materials on a subject to be logically classified, and avoids separating books in the same class on the purely artificial lines of circulating and non-circulating as is commonly done to create a reference library, as distinguished from a circulating collection. The educational value of keeping together all open-shelf books of the same class more than outweighs the possible difficulty some readers might find in distinguishing between books that may circulate and those that may not, when standing side by side.

After all, the library that must provide for the diversified needs of a reading community cannot determine in advance,

when placing books on the open reference shelves, whether a particular book will be so constantly needed as to call for restriction. Only experience with individual books can determine, in many cases, the freedom of use allowed in other places than the one to which it is assigned. All the theory that this book is for reference and that one for reading may be of no use when experience enters into the case.

To summarize: Place all books wanted for reference in one logical, orderly group on shelves open to all classes of users. From these books allow the withdrawal of those needed for home reading, seminary and laboratory research, in all cases where experience has not shown that the greatest service to the greatest number requires the books to be kept in the library. In this way is attained the maximum efficiency at the least cost.

PRINCIPLES GOVERNING THE SELECTION OF A REFERENCE COLLECTION FOR A GREAT PUBLIC LIBRARY

That the clientele of a library determines the purchases for the research division—over and beyond those standard works which form a basis for every reference collection—is emphasized by Dr. William Dawson Johnston. He calls attention to the cost of reference books and indicates the proportion of the general fund which should be reserved for their purchase.

A partial sketch of Dr. Johnston's life has been given in Volume I of the series, *The Relationship Between the Library and the Public Schools.* He resigned at St. Paul, in 1921, and was at the head of the American Library in Paris until 1925 when he became the European representative of the Library of Congress. He died when on a business visit to Washington, on November 18, 1928.

It is a commonplace of library science that the character of the reference collection of a library should depend upon the character of the library, its collections, organizations and use. It requires reiteration, however, because of the danger, in the division of library service by departments, of developing one department at the expense of another, and also because of the danger with A. L. A. guides and the like useful tools, of moulding one collection after the pattern of another.

The collections of a national library must differ from those of a state or municipal or university library, and those of a general library must differ from those of a special one. The existence of special departments or reading rooms like those devoted to art or statistics, and even the condition of the records of the library and of its several departments, must affect the selection of the reference collections. The character of the clientele of a library is, of course, a fundamental consideration

throughout, and one that must lead to some amiable differences as to what the reference collection should comprehend.

In so far, however, as our conditions and our functions are similar we may well be influenced in the selection of our reference collections by certain general considerations. In the first place, we must be influenced by the scope and size of the collections in the library and their accessibility to the public. One is tempted to say that the size of the reference collection should ordinarily be in a given ratio to the size of the collections of the library as a whole. But library conditions are so far from normal that I have been baffled in every effort to determine this ratio. Again, with regard to accessibility of the general collections to the public, we can only observe that open shelves will not make a reference collection unnecessary; they will, however, modify the character of the reference collection, and may make it unnecessary to place any but ready reference works in the reading room.

To pass on to a further consideration, if our reference collections have been divided, if there are departments or reading rooms especially devoted to periodicals, prints, maps, music, documents, local literature, book treasures, standard books, etc., we should devote relatively much more attention to these classes of literature than we should otherwise, partly because the special collections could be better displayed in separate quarters, partly because they could be handled more advantageously by the specialist in charge of them, and partly, too, because a different class of readers would have access to them. The scope of these special reference collections is, however, a subject for separate consideration. It is sufficient in this place to observe that their existence must modify somewhat the character of the collection as a whole, as well as the character of the collection which is left in the main reading room.

Another administrative consideration in the selection of the main reference collection is the necessity of temporary reservation of special collections. One problem in connection with them is that of their relation to the special exhibits of the issue department. Where reservation is required by a definite body of readers there need be no doubt as to its desirability, but in cases where the subject is one of general though temporary interest it may seem better to exhibit the books in the issue department rather than reserve them in the reference department.

We may, for example, reserve a collection of books for use in the study of Shakespeare or a collection of books suitable for Christmas presents, while a collection of books on the Boer War would be better exhibited with a view to facilitating their circulation.

Still another matter to be considered from the administrative point of view is the condition of the catalog. An inadequate subject catalog will make a good collection of bibliographies desirable. Classified bibliographies form useful supplements to a dictionary catalog, and bibliographies in dictionary form, or supplemented by an index, constitute valuable supplements to a classed catalog.

These various administrative considerations as to the reference collections to the size of the library, open shelves, special reading rooms, temporary reservations, and the condition of the catalog are of fundamental importance in determining their general scope. In defining, however, the scope of the collection of "ready reference" books, the essential part of the reference collections, one must be guided mainly by the character of the books themselves, the space available for their accommodation, and the cost of installing the collection and keeping it up to date.

The number of necessary reference books is not large, and Emil Reich promises that it will never be large, that, indeed, it will become less. I am inclined to the contrary opinion, but, however that may be, it is interesting to note that the British Museum has in its reading-room some 60,000 volumes; the New York public library plans for about 25,000 to 30,000 volumes; the Boston public library has about 8,500 volumes. All of these collections, however, include, in addition to works of ready reference, standard works and manuals. Miss Kroeger's "Guide to reference books" comprehends about 6,000 volumes and its annual supplements about 50 volumes each, not including annuals or new editions. This increase of nearly 1% a year does not appear formidable, and may conceivably grow less with an improved organization of the book industry. I do not anticipate, however, that the number of reference books proper will ever present any serious problem. The cost of compilation and publication and the limited demand for such works must always prevent their rapid multiplication.

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The question of shelving will not, therefore, under normal conditions present any great difficulties. The new buildings of large public libraries like Paterson, Grand Rapids, Providence and Atlanta, described by Mr. Hill in the statistical tables published in the Report of the Manchester (Eng.) libraries committee in 1908, have reference rooms with space for about 1,300 feet of shelving on an average, that is room for perhaps 10,000 volumes. This should be ample space for all the necessary ready reference collections of a library. The crowding of the space would indicate that some material was there which should be removed to the stacks, or that special reading rooms were needed for the accommodation of certain sections of the collection.

On the other hand, the question of the cost of this class of books is a most serious one. Not only is the original cost of a work of this class considerable, but the life of a reference book is short, and new editions and periodical and annual supplements are many. The British Museum has found it desirable to issue a new edition of its list of books in the reading room once in 15 years, the John Crerar library once in 9 years, the University of Leipsic once in 5 years.

The rapid change in this class of literature may be shown also by a comparison of the lists of reference books published by Dr. Spofford in 1876, Mr. Wheatley in 1886 and Miss Kroeger in 1908. Under the heading "Chemistry," for example, only 2 of the 7 titles mentioned by Dr. Spofford are to be found in the list prepared by Mr. Wheatley 10 years later, and only one of them, and that in a new edition, in Miss Kroeger's list. Indeed, about 97% of the books in the last list have been published since 1876, the date of Mr. Spofford's list.

Another important consideration in estimating the cost of the reference collection is the large proportion of new editions and annuals. Of those in Miss Kroeger's list about 33% are new editions, and 15% annuals.

The cost of the 100 reference books selected for small libraries by Miss Kroeger is $1,474.65, that is about $5 a volume. The cost of the entire collection would therefore not exceed $30,000 and the cost of annual additions, perhaps not more than $5,000. The largest libraries of the country, counting all except the Library of Congress, having over 300,000 volumes, expend for books and periodicals an average sum of $46,077.

These libraries, by an annual expenditure of 10% of their book fund for works of reference, can secure practically everything that should be added to their reference collections. But the average annual expenditure for all libraries having over 5,000 volumes is only $1,922. Obviously, these libraries must devote much more than 10% of their book fund to reference books, and even then restrict their purchases to the more useful general works, and particularly to those in compendious form.

How are libraries, even the larger ones, to meet this problem of cost? How are they to select the necessary dictionaries, encyclopedic and other, relating to every subject and called by every name? It is difficult to say, but a somewhat categorical indication of the relative importance of the various classes of reference books may be attempted: Reference books for the general reader should be secured first and afterwards those for specialists, or, perhaps I should say rather, those for special classes of readers. Works relating to matters of local interest and written in the English language should come first, and then works relating to foreign matters and written in foreign languages. Files of bound magazines will, in a measure, take the place of annuals, but the latter also are desirable. Duplicates of many of the works in the reading room should be placed in the stacks. Many undersized books will be bought for the reference collection, necessarily, but kept as "desk reserves."

All libraries will supplement the book collections in their reference departments by newspaper clippings selected simply with a view to supplying information not otherwise easily accessible. These should be destroyed as soon as their usefulness is over. They will also supplement the bibliographic information contained in their own catalogs by making accessible in the reference collections the more important subject bibliographies, and the more important library catalogs even if there are already copies of these in other departments of the library. Library catalogs like that of the Boston public library, the Shakespeare collection and the Columbia university list of books on education are especially desirable. They have all the value of bibliographies, and in addition they show what volumes may be secured in other libraries or borrowed from them.

Altogether our libraries will in the future, I am certain, pursue an increasingly liberal policy regarding their reference collections. They must do so if they are to become generous patrons of learning, or even useful bureaus of information.

THE CONSERVATION OF LIBRARY MATERIALS: A PROBLEM IN REQUIRED READING

Mr. William Elmer Henry has expressed the sentiments of all who lay valuable books before the unconcerned reader. The situation he describes is not peculiar to university libraries. The public libraries, under the broad curriculum of the public schools, suffer through the mutilation and destruction of certain sections of many general and biographical encyclopedias, literary collections, local histories as well as files of periodicals which should, under ordinary usage, serve generations to come.

A biographical sketch of Mr. Henry may be found in Volume VII of the series, *The Library and Its Workers.*

The old problem of the old library was the preservation of its materials frequently to the point of almost preventing their use. A new problem of the new library, and more specifically the college and university library, is the conservation of materials that should and must be used.

Etymologically considered there seems to be no essential difference between preservation and conservation, but in our recent popular use the words are fairly distinct in the minds of many, and suggest almost opposite meanings. Preservation carries with it the suggestion of preventing use, or special preparation for future use. Conservation connotes not the lack of use but rather the careful and economic and rational present use in such form or degree as shall husband the material, as shall not destroy it, as shall retain it for future use. The old library preserved, the modern library must conserve. . . .

We have for some time been familiar with the theory of conservation as applied to our forests, our mines, our water power, but it is so recent that we have begun to think of the needs and rights of future generations that everyone who con-

siders this question with me well knows the chief facts concerning the vigorous, uncompromising and yet unfinished fight in national and state governments for the protection of the rights of the next and following generations to a participation in the use of what nature has provided in what we choose to call natural resources. . . .

Conserve, make permanent, guard the future, protect the interests of those who are not here to protect their interests: all these have come to be partial definitions of the word conservation.

With the very instinct of the librarian, the preservation of all good things, one would scarcely think that there should ever be any necessity for emphasis upon conservation. However, there is a real problem of conservation arising in many libraries, and especially in our college and university libraries, that is pressing hard upon us, and, so far as I know, no solution has been offered or even publicly considered.

It is not a problem of the first magnitude in library administration, but it is a vital one within its scope. It is the problem that has come with our modern conceptions of college teaching, with our pedagogy, if you please. It is a backward extension of our modern and rapid extension of graduate teaching and study.

There was a time when the fact that a statement of fact or opinion was in print made it authoritative, and no questions of veracity were asked, and no serious consideration was taken as between questions of authority growing out of investigations and questions of opinion that were based upon no other consideration than that someone had funds sufficient to pay the printer. . . .

We are now in a new educational world with new conceptions of education and new conceptions of study and class management. Now we have the lecture, the notebook and the assigned reading. Any college teacher of whatever rank or preparation will presume to lecture upon almost any topic if he has read not less than two text-books and one article from an encyclopedia upon the subject. He expresses himself in much poorer form than can be found in almost any book that has been written upon the subject; the student, instead of really thinking what the professor is saying and what he means by what he says, is on the verge of writer's cramp and paralysis

trying to take in his notebook in a still poorer form what the professor is so badly expressing. Then this student spends his time at home, rewriting his notes while he should be either reading or thinking upon the subject under consideration, a duty for which he has had but little time and less preparation.

Then, in order to compensate in some way for the poor lecture and worse notes he has taken, he must read five hundred more or less pages per month, so rapidly and so disconnectedly that sometimes perhaps he never sees the relation between what he is reading and the course he is taking for which he wishes credit. The chief purpose of the note book and the required reading are to impress upon the student that he has, in the vocabulary of the university, a "stiff" course, and that the professor is no "snap."

With the "assigned reading" comes our little problem of conservation of materials and if I may not be taken too literally, I should say the conservation of source materials. This title would not be far wrong, but I hesitate to use it lest it be interpreted too literally, and should appear to be attempting more than I really had in mind to do.

With the lecture, the note-book and the assigned reading grew the idea that each student, even to the freshman, must make the nearest approach to an original investigator and make first hand researches. The students in a very small high school, twenty miles from a library, informed me that the history work in that school was original research. They did not understand, but they used the language of an elder.

In this effort for the so-called research the faculty has selected the assigned readings in many cases from the nearest approach that the given library possesses to first hand sources. It is not bad that students know of such source materials; it is well to have some mention or (if no more) a brief digest of this material for even elementary work, but our problem of conservation comes in the library when a class of from fifty to one hundred and fifty careless students are required to read an expensive and out-of-print book, or certain chapters in it.

Mind you, the wholesale reading of rare and expensive materials is done very largely by students who care little or nothing for the facts they obtain or for the care of the literature. The chief concern of most of them ends with examination day.

Many of our professors are as thoughtless of the future use of the materials and of the welfare of future generations of

students and for the integrity of the library materials, as are the great logging companies of the integrity of the forests, or the lumber interests of future generations.

The moment a reading is assigned to a large class some over-thoughtful and industrious student, whose penetrating intellect fastens itself upon the vital words and most important sentences of the text, and whose generous spirit dictates that he should do some thinking for others, begins to underscore all these words and sentences.

This penciling is usually done with a soft blurring pencil that penetrates the soft rough surface of book paper and cannot be erased. Sometimes the student who has gone far enough to appreciate and value the real permanency of records will discard so temporary a makeshift as a pencil and use ink both for underscoring and the occasional marginal note which he is willing to contribute lest some future reader or a member of his own class may be too dull to catch the points of vital significance.

The wearing out or the mutilation of an isolated book is serious enough, but it is of slight concern in comparison with a volume of a long run of periodicals, and this is the thing that is most likely to occur. The article in a high class scholarly periodical is usually much better material for assigned readings than are the books that are less condensed, less direct and less up to date in both conception and treatment of the subject. . . .

We can go to our shelves of economic journals or to our philosophic journals where a hundred and fifty students have read the latest on "trusts and combines," or the "seven men who control the wealth of the United States," the "taxation of intangible property," the "problems of market distribution," or the "democratic idea of a god" in *Hibbert's,* or in educational journals, where like numbers must know what Stanley Hall said about adolescence or what Professor Blank knows about child study and in these behold awful examples of the needs of conservation. . . .

It does not at first thought seem very serious that a dozen or twenty pages be destroyed out of a periodical containing fifty thousand pages, and perhaps this impression influences the students' thought, if he thinks, but all who have tried to replace a mutilated volume know the seriousness of it.

Not only do these readers mutilate by pencil or even ink, and by the excessive wear that comes from hundreds reading

the same selection but occasionally there comes a student who becomes so firmly attached to an article in a technical magazine that he finds he cannot separate himself from it, and since he can't stay with the beloved selection, he gently removes the much sought for article from the magazine and takes it with him. Our Volume I of the *Pedagogical Seminary* during the last session of our summer school fell into the hands of a high-school teacher, and an article of twenty pages was torn from the periodical; and a significant feature of this transaction is that the article was entitled, "Teaching Ethics in the High School." The humor of it alone makes the mutilation less difficult to bear. . . .

The question is not difficult to comprehend and its seriousness is readily appreciated. The cure or remedy is not so easily determined upon or so readily applied.

The first and perhaps the chief difficulty in remedying the defect is that the application does not lie within the realm of the librarian's jurisdiction. The difficulty lies in the modern schemes of instruction and any remedy that may be applied is likely to be applicable only by the professor, and if a remedy shall come by which the conservation of our almost source materials may be possible and our sets of valuable periodicals may be kept intact it will probably come through the changes made by the teaching force of the universities, and they, up to this time, have not appreciated the problem, nor even that a problem exists.

We, as librarians, however, more clearly comprehending that the problem exists and that it is or may soon become a serious one, may legitimately busy ourselves in speculating upon the case and finding if possible a solution for our conservation problem.

If the solution is possible and a remedy for present errors may be found it is quite possible that our professors may be made to appreciate the situation and their cooperation secured to bring about such changes in practice as will solve the problem I am trying to present.

I think it fair to assume that the professors will not totally change nor very seriously modify their present plans of instruction. The so-called lecture method will not be abandoned, and the demand will persist that students, even down to the freshmen, shall have access to the secondary sources in the

form, usually, of the latest and most important expert view as set forth in our great periodicals, which are the most precious possessions of most of our universities.

Our only hope then, it seems to me, is to devise some plan for the use of the materials that will make available to a large class the real essence of these best secondary sources, and yet prevent the actual handling of these periodicals by untrained and many times uninterested young students who do not to any degree appreciate the sacred value of what to them is little more than paper.

The nature of much of this material is such that it is quite impossible to purchase many copies, as can easily be done in the case of recent books, any one of which might be used as a text.

The periodicals could usually be bought in duplicate when first published, if we could know at that time that they are to be wanted, but generally many months have elapsed and sometimes years, before we are aware that a certain period or a given theory cannot be adequately studied unless all the members of a large class may each have unrestricted access to a given article in a bound magazine that can scarcely be duplicated or replaced.

I see at this time but two courses even to suggest that may help the situation. One is wholly in the hands of the professor, the other is to a degree within the control of the librarian if he may have advance warning of the call that is to be made and has available funds.

The first is that instead of each of a large class reading and penciling a valuable article in an expensive periodical, this article be assigned to one student rather than 150 and that he digest it thoroughly for the class, and even furnish the members of the class with a brief of his digest by duplication.

The faculty objection to this scheme would probably be that it leaves one hundred and forty-nine students idle while one digests the material, for at times it seems they are more interested in the fact that the students work than that they secure results through their work. Having been a college teacher, I must think that many students can be employed at such work at one time, each on a separate assignment and the class as a whole get a much wider range than under present plans, and each receive large benefits from the intensive work of other members of the class.

The second possible plan, and one within the control of the librarian, is the duplication of the entire assigned article, by mimeograph or otherwise, so that many copies may be at the loan desk, that many readers may be accommodated at one time. This plan seems a rational solution, but in the course of a year, it will cost many dollars, and in one sense not increase the resources of the library.

A third mere possibility comes to my mind, but it is not in the control of either professor or librarian, and it is so far outside the limits of probability, if not of possibility, that I hardly need mention it. It is the more generous preparation and publication of source books for different lines of study. These so-called source books would, of course, be digests of the best literature in a particular and restricted line. Unless, however, the courses were fairly uniform in many educational institutions, the market for such source books would not justify publication. Whether the courses and the materials could be sufficiently standardized to keep a source book in the market for a series of years, I do not know.

I know we must do something for the conservation of our best materials at whatever cost. I should like to know how the problem impresses other members of this section and what solutions you have to suggest.

DIVISION OF A LIBRARY INTO BOOKS IN USE, AND BOOKS NOT IN USE, WITH DIFFERENT STORAGE METHODS FOR THE TWO CLASSES OF BOOKS

It is not remarkable that Harvard University should long ago have been compelled to face, in its library, the problem of congested shelves, or that Dr. Charles William Eliot should have become an exponent of advanced methods in dealing with such a situation. Dr. Eliot as a leader was not hampered by a librarian's close vision or traditions, at the same time he was too scholarly to overlook the possible future worth of a book.

Dr. Eliot was born on March 20, 1834, in Boston, Massachusetts. From Harvard University he received his first degree, in 1853, his master's degree in 1856, that of LL.D and an honorary M.D. in 1909. Similar honors were conferred upon him by Princeton, Yale, Williams, Johns Hopkins and other universities. At intervals he studied abroad, instructing in the meantime at Harvard. From 1865 to 1869 he was professor of analytical chemistry at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology; from 1869 to 1909, president of Harvard University, and from that time until his death, August 22, 1926, president emeritus of the university. During his long term of office he delivered numerous addresses and published a number of works upon scientific and educational subjects.

Before this assembly of experts it is proper that I should describe the past experiences and present conditions which have lately led me to study the library question anew, and have caused me, who am not an expert, to venture to write on the subject.

When Gore Hall was built in 1840, my predecessor, President Josiah Quincy, supposed that the building had sufficient capacity to hold the probable accumulation of books during the remainder of the century; yet within thirty-five years it was necessary to construct an extension which held many more books than the original building. Within twenty years more it became necessary to reconstruct the interior of the original Gore Hall in such a manner as greatly to increase its book capacity; and now, within six years of the last enlargement, a further enlargement, more considerable than either of the preceding, is declared to be absolutely necessary. The city of Boston erected about forty years ago what was then considered a very large library building on Boylston Street. Within less than forty years that building had to be replaced by a building of vastly greater capacity at the cost of several millions of dollars; and this new building is so placed with reference to the surrounding streets that it will be most impossible in time to come to more than double its capacity. Only thirteen years ago Cambridge built a public library; but the city has already been obliged to make a considerable extension of the building. In the meantime many new public libraries have been erected in the various cities and towns which constitute the metropolitan district of Boston. I have, therefore, witnessed a very extraordinary increase in the number of books kept accessible to readers in the communities which fall under my immediate observation; I have also witnessed frequent enlargements of the buildings used for storing these collections, enlargements repeated at always diminishing intervals. All over the country, but especially in Massachusetts, local public libraries have been rapidly established within a single generation; so that the centres from which books are distributed, or at which books are read, have multiplied extraordinarily. Since Gore Hall was planned—that is, quite within the life-time of many persons here present—the production of books and other printed matter has increased at an unprecedented rate; until now there is no library, however rich, which pretends to keep pace with the annual publications of the world; and all libraries, large and small alike, are compelled to exercise close selection in the purchasing and acceptance of books. No existing library can dream of providing two miles and more of new shelving every year. Completeness can no longer be the ideal of any library. Judicious selection for local and present use is the ideal.

At a university which employs a large number of specialists as teachers, the books selected for purchase will be those which the university specialists decide are most needed at the passing moment by themselves or their pupils; and since these specialists change somewhat rapidly by death or transfer to other fields of labor, the direction of purchases in a given university library will probably change considerably from generation to generation; so that even in a university library the selection of the books must be called variable and almost casual, unless an unchanging policy of purchasing only in certain specified departments of knowledge be adopted and persistently maintained. I know no instance of the long maintenance of such a policy for a public collection not professional.

The prodigious annual output of books and magazines is by no means all original matter. A large proportion of it is matter which has only been revised or recast. Each generation makes its own treaties, gazeteers, bibliographies, indices, dictionaries and cyclopedias, re-edits the famous books come down from preceding generations, and writes its own biographies of the heroic personages of the past. It is impossible to discern any limit to this portentous flood of reproduction. Yet in each generation this immense mass of revised or recast matter invalidates much of the printed work of former generations or throws it out of use. Moreover, all signs indicate that the flood of printed matter has by no means reached its height. Indeed there is every reason to suppose that printing and publishing will become cheaper and cheaper, and the facilities for authorship and the number of authors greater and greater. The ease with which books are made has altered the character of the printed book. It is plain that great masses of new books have only an ephemeral interest, like the monthly magazines and the weekly papers.

Under these conditions the great need of means of discriminating between books which may fairly be said to be in use and books which may fairly be said to be not in use has been forced on me, and on many other persons nearly concerned with the largest, readiest and most profitable use of libraries, and with the promotion of sound reading among pupils at school, students at college or university, and the people at large. The problem is essentially an economic one. It is not a good use of the precious educational resources of a community, or an

institution, to enlarge at frequent intervals its library building, if the new space needed for books in use can be secured by discarding books not in use; and it is not frugal policy to permit the presence of thousands or millions of dead books to increase the cost of service, care and cleaning in a much-frequented library.

I admit at once that the means of just discrimination between books in use and books not in use are not easy to discern or to apply; but I maintain, nevertheless, that the search for these means should be diligently prosecuted, and that every reasonable suggestion of means of discrimination deserves careful attention. It is obvious that no one man is competent to discriminate, on principles of judgment which his own mind elaborates, between a dead book and a living book in all departments of learning. The only satisfactory test is the actual demand or absence of demand for the book in question. Thus it might naturally be suspected that a book which had not been called for in a university library for twenty years possessed but a faint vitality; whereas a book that was called for every year would certainly be considered alive. The fact of disuse seems to me an effective criterion, and the question for librarians is how to determine that fact of disuse. In libraries where no person has access to the shelves except the librarian and his assistants, so that every book used is ordered by a written slip, and passes the delivery desk, the fact of disuse can certainly be satisfactorily determined. In libraries where some thousands of books, say from five thousand to a hundred thousand, are kept on open shelves, accessible to all users or all privileged users of the library, there must be some principle of selection which assigns books to those open shelves. No judicious librarian will keep on open shelves books which are never touched. There already exists, therefore, a satisfactory criterion for large numbers of live books. The real difficulty in determining disuse arises in libraries which permit access to all their shelves to a considerable number of readers who may handle the books at their pleasure, and remove any of them temporarily to neighboring tables where they can be conveniently read. This permission has no value except in a classified library, or, rather, except in those parts of a library which are classified. There are many libraries in which the "browsing" process is not permitted, and in them this difficulty in determining the disuse of a book does

not exist. Moreover, where the difficulty exists now it would be removed by enforcing the simple rule that the reader admitted to the shelves may take a book down, but shall not put it up; and this rule would have other obvious advantages. I shall have something to say later concerning the value of the process of browsing in a library.

I have found on inquiry that the discrimination between books in use and books not in use has already been made in some libraries of widely different character as regards size, rate of growth and general purpose. Thus the British Museum has already made large discriminations. The Medical Library of Boston, although it has lately procured a new building much larger than its first, has still large numbers of books stored in the suburbs of Boston. The Harvard Library has been forced to box thousands of books, and store them in the cellars of other buildings—a very inconvenient method. The Boston Athenaeum has for some years put its most used books in its lower stories, and its least used in the upper, for the convenience of its attendants, and of its proprietors who have access to the shelves. Many town libraries have found no difficulty in deciding upon those books which are so seldom called for that they may be put in out-of-the-way places.

But what should be done with disused books, when once the means of discrimination between the used and the disused have been found? It seems to me clear that a book which is worth keeping at all ought to be kept accessible; that is, where it can be found, on demand, with a reasonable expenditure of time and labor. The problem, then, is to devise a mode of storing disused books, so that they may be kept safe and accessible, and yet at a low cost for shelter and annual care. The most obvious considerations of economy demand that disused books, or books very seldom used, should be stored in inexpensive buildings on cheap land. There is frightful waste in storing little-used books on land worth a million dollars an acre, if land worth a hundred dollars an acre would answer all reasonable purposes. Next, no unnecessary number of copies should be stored for one and the same community. If, for instance, there are thirty public or semi-public libraries within twelve miles of the State House in Boston, it is wasteful for each of those libraries to be storing disused books, for many of the books so preserved would be duplicates. There should be one

store-house for disused books for the entire district, wherein not more than two copies of any book should be preserved. Thirdly, the interior construction of such a building should differ in important respects from the construction of the ordinary book-stack in use to-day. A stack like that of the Harvard Library, which was the first stack constructed of the type now common, or that of the Congressional Library, a more recent and far more costly type, provides a passageway between each two rows of books; and in order to get good daylight into the middle of these narrow aisles or passageways, the lengths of the rows are very moderate, and there are often passageways along the ends of the rows of books between these ends and the walls. The result of this arrangement is that not more than one-fifth of the cubical contents of the building which covers the stack is really occupied by books. In order to secure compact stowage, all books in such a store-house as we are contemplating should, in the first place, be assorted by size. They should next be marked by a label at the top of the back to receive only a serial letter and number. No classification of the books should be permitted: for a classified library occupies more space than one which is not classified. The books having been assorted by size should be placed three deep on the shelves, and on the edge of each shelf should stand fixed-location shelf-marks bearing the numbers of the three books behind each mark. The serial number once assigned to a book should never be changed and the place of each book once fixed should never be changed. The passage-ways should be long, and should end against the walls, and only one passageway down the middle of the stack should afford access to the passageways between the rows of books. In this way nearly two-thirds of the building might be actually occupied by books. The roof should be flat, and so constructed as to defend the upper stories from the heat of the summer sun. All windows should be double, to exclude dust and cold. In winter the temperature of the entire building should be kept low, and by the use of gratings for floors the whole building should be treated as one room for purposes of heating and ventilating. None but the attendants should ever be allowed in the stacks. They would find the books called for by their serial numbers only, and would bring them to the reading-room and studies which should be attached to the building. It ought, of course to be possible

for any student who desired a large number of books to have them brought to him in a separate room where he could examine them at his leisure, and retain the use of them for a definite period. It should also be possible for any library in the district which used this store-house to procure any books from the store-house on written or telephoned orders, the cards corresponding to all the books in the store-house being kept at all the libraries which were large enough to accomodate such a catalogue. Such a building could be a regular polygon, like a square and so have a shorter perimeter than any irregular polygon of the same area, like a long rectangle, for instance.

The books in such a store-house would be reasonably accessible to real students. They would no longer encumber the libraries from which they had been dismissed. They need no longer encumber the card catalogues in ordinary use at the libraries from which they had been dismissed. The discharge of disused books from the thirty or more libraries of the whole district into this common receptacle would be intermittent, perhaps, by weeks or months, but fairly continuous by long period, such as five-year or ten-year periods. The libraries of books in use would themselves be more economically and effectively administered if relieved of the burden of the dead books; and they would be under no necessity of extending their buildings at short intervals over new areas of more and more expensive land.

The treatment of the library catalogue under these new conditions would deserve careful consideration and experimentation. In libraries which contained a well-classified subject catalogue, it might, or might not, be best to keep in the classified catalogue, the titles of disused books. By retaining all the titles which had ever found place in the classified catalogue, a student unacquainted with the literature of his subject would be supplied with an important bibliographical guide; but on the other hand by keeping in the catalogue the titles of disused books the bulk of the catalogue would be increased in a progressive measure, and the daily use of the catalogue would therefore be made more difficult and more time-consuming for everybody resorting to it.

These last considerations lead naturally to the interesting subject of "browsing." There can be no doubt that the inexperienced student gets some advantage from looking over the

books in a classified library on a subject in which he has an intelligent interest; but of course his chief advantage is procured from those books which have still so much life in them as to be sometimes read. Browsing on good books is often helpful, but browsing on poor books, and particularly on books which have been so replaced by better ones as to have gone out of use, is a very questionable advantage for the ordinary student. I am not suggesting that browsing on live books should be prevented, but only that browsing on dead books might be made less convenient than it now is by requiring that the dead books to be examined should be ordered and brought together for the browser in a reading-room or study. For the advanced student, who wishes to make a really thorough study of the literature of a given subject, the examination of the books on that subject which happen to stand on the shelves of a given library ought not to be satisfactory. He may be quite certain that the collection is not complete, and that it may even be described as casual. He ought to make acquaintance with a thorough bibliography of his subject, or he ought at least to examine thoroughly several classified catalogues of books on his subject. He should never be content with the selection of books which happens to have been made in a single library, but should examine the contents of several libraries. In short, he ought to regard browsing in one collection not as thorough study at all, but only as a pleasing gratification of curiosity in comparatively leisure moments.

It is obvious that the economical advantages of the division of books which has been here suggested would be numerous. In the first place, the trustees of libraries would not have to hold vacant large pieces of expensive land all about their present library buildings, in order to provide for enlargements of those buildings in successive generations. In the second place, they would not be put to the expense of building these successive enlargements, but would always keep in a sufficient building that number of books for which it had originally been designed, the older books which had proved to be disused being constantly replaced by newer books which are to be put to the test of use, and the whole collection being actually alive. Again, the maintenance of the store-house for disused books would be far less costly than the maintenance of the building for the active library as regards heat, light,

number of attendants and cleaning. Finally, the handling of the catalogues and the delivery of books at the active library would be quicker and easier, and the service of that library would, therefore, be less expensive and more efficient. Every hundred thousand books in a much-used library and every million cards in its catalogue increase the cost of service and care, because they add to the difficulties of the service, and the extent of the care-taking.

It seems to me that emphasis should be laid henceforth not on the number of volumes which a library contains, but on the wise selection of its books, and on the facilities for the daily use of its treasures. It is much more important that adequate provision of reading-rooms, large and small, should be made, than that browsing be permitted, or that every book owned by the library should be obtainable on demand within a few minutes. It is not unreasonable that an interval of twenty-four hours should elapse between the receipt of an order for a book and its delivery. Commercial circulating libraries both in England and in this country are highly successful, although they often require a much longer interval than this between the receipt of an order and the delivery. As the facilities for the safe delivery of books by mail, parcel deliveries, or expresses increase, the habit of borrowing books from a distance ought likewise to become common. The student and the general reader alike should be willing to await the delivery of the book he wants for hours or even days, just as a naturalist waits for the season at which his particular material is to be found, or for the time of year when his plant flowers, or his moths escape from the chrysalis, or his chickens or his trout hatch. The real student ought to be capable of some forelooking, and of a certain deliberation in reading.

Whenever the distinction between books in use and books out of use, and between a library of live books and a storehouse for dead books, comes to be admitted and applied, it will be possible to return to spacious and handsome halls and rooms for the permanent active library. The modern steel stack is not a decorative or inspiring structure, and we should all be glad to advocate with a good conscience more beautiful and interesting forms of construction for the library of books in use.

It is an interesting but not an urgent question how many depositories of dead books might reasonably be provided in

the United States. If the general conception should be accepted, the interests of different localities will in time determine the number of places of deposit for books out of use. In my report on Harvard University for the year 1900-01, I mentioned three appropriate places of deposit—Washington, New York and Chicago; but I can see great convenience in having one place of deposit for Eastern Massachusetts; and doubtless the Pacific coast and the eastern slopes of the Rocky Mountains would some day need others.

It has been said that the present generation cannot determine the taste in books which any future generation will manifest, and therefore that present disuse of a book is not to be accepted as evidence that it is dead outright and forever. This suggestion has some truth in it, but it does not go far. There are few books now in use which have been resurrected after long burial; but if there were such books, their temporary storage in the house of disused books would not prevent their restoration to some of the active libraries when the new generation had discovered or rediscovered their merits. I am not proposing a crematory for dead books, but only a receiving-tomb. Neither am I proposing that the bibliophile or the antiquarian should be absolutely deprived of his idols, but only that his access to them should be made somewhat less convenient and attractive.

Another mode of selection in the purchase and holding of books by different libraries within some territory of modern extent has often been suggested,—namely, the assignment to different libraries of different subjects to which they shall severally confine themselves in the purchase of their books. There is a great deal to be said for this mode of selection, if the interests of a large community like the Boston Metropolitan district, for example, rather than those of a single town or city, or a single university, are to be considered. But it ought to be observed that this method of selecting the books which any given library shall own involves the same willingness on the part of readers to wait a reasonable time for the books they want, as must be assumed if the line of division in any one library shall be between books in use and books not in use. If European history were assigned as one of its subjects to the Boston Public Library and American history to the Harvard Library, the historical student in Cambridge might

have to wait for his book until it could be brought from Boston, and vice versa. No principle of selection can be applied to a group of libraries, which does not involve, though infrequently, some reasonable delay in the delivery to the reader of the book he wants; yet it is indispensable that some principle of selection or other shall be adopted. It is also to be observed that books will inevitably come to be disused in the several departments assigned to each separate library.

What I have wished, and still wish, to urge upon the attention of professional librarians—solely in the interest of the best use of the best books—is the need of determining beforehand the general policy which is to be adopted with regard to the storage and most convenient use of the overwhelming masses of books which are pouring forth at all the large centres of book-making in the world, masses which each decade bids fair to double. At present most of the libraries of the country are vaguely contemplating an indefinite enlargement of their buildings, and an indefinite increase in the cost of maintaining, caring for and serving out their growing collections of books. The present buildings of many libraries may now look adequate for years to come; but surprisingly soon their vacant shelves will be filled, and the pinch we have felt three times within sixty years at the Harvard Library will afflict them also. There seems to me to be an urgent need of settling soon on a clear and feasible policy for the future; and I know no body of persons more competent than that I now address to discover and promulgate such a policy.

STORAGE LIBRARIES

Continuing the subject presented by Dr. Eliot of Harvard University, in 1902, Dr. Frank Pierce Hill, librarian of the Brooklyn Public Library, in an article, extensively quoted here, discusses various plans for the storage of little-used books.

A sketch of Dr. Hill will be found in Volume VII, *The Library and Its Workers.*

Seven years ago at the Magnolia conference, President Charles W. Eliot, of Harvard University, called attention to the necessity for providing storage for out-of-date or little-used books, advancing the proposition that such books be placed in a building removed from the main library, where, at the same time, they could be made easily accessible. He urged upon librarians

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> At the same conference, in a paper on the *Administration of branch libraries,* the present writer touched upon the subject as it applied to a branch library system.

In spite of the fact that many large library buildings have recently been erected in the United States—anticipating as closely as possible the probable increase from year to year—the problem grows more serious as time passes, and we cannot afford to wait until the pressure is felt before taking action. Nearly every library building erected within the past fifty years has

outgrown its capacity long before the anticipated time. No amount of forethought can prepare for all contingencies, and experience shows that however liberal may have been the allowance for growth, it is impossible to estimate with any degree of accuracy the time when a library will outgrow its book capacity. The most generous provision proves inadequate.

Recognizing the importance of "determining a general policy" the president has set aside this session for a consideration of the subject in its several bearings.

The question of storage presents itself in different aspects to librarians of national, state, university and reference, country or district, and city libraries. Each has his own problem to solve, but the work to be done by the libraries of this country is of too much consequence to permit of unnecessary overlapping. The time has come when more definite action must be taken to limit the fields of operation of each kind of library and to foster specialization. A careful division of labor among libraries representing different sections and different subjects would reduce the number of duplicates acquired, and would tend to make the problem less difficult of solution.

Suggestions have been offered as to ways in which this may be brought about, but no agreement has been reached by the various institutions interested.

The Library of Congress has set an example by limiting the classes of investigators which it will aim to serve,* leaving to state and municipal libraries the work which more properly belongs to them.

So the line of demarcation between state and municipal libraries should be as sharply drawn, while the cooperative spirit should be cultivated between the public libraries and university and special libraries, the one supplying miscellaneous material which would be out of place in a special library, the other supplying to students special and rare books which no general public library can afford to purchase.

To some extent, at least, libraries have been governed by this spirit in the purchase of books. For example, as the Long Island Historical Society and the Kings County Medical Society are located in the same borough, the Brooklyn Public Library has adopted the policy of not buying genealogical works,

* See "The Library of Congress as a national library," by Dr. Herbert Putnam, Library Journal, 30: C27-34.

town and county histories, etc., or medical books. By a special arrangement the Brooklyn Public Library carries ten subscriptions to the Historical society which it loans to students not members of the society. There may be an opportunity for carrying this work still farther by making it apply to little-used books. We heartily agree with Dr. Eliot when he says that

> no unnecessary number of copies should be stored for one and the same community. If, for instance, there are thirty public or semi-public libraries within twelve miles of the State House in Boston, it is wasteful for each of these libraries to be storing disused books, for many of the books so preserved will be duplicates.

But we question the desirability of adopting his suggestion in relation to district storehouses containing nothing but what he terms "dead" books.

Is it not true that if such books as these are to be used in the future, they will, in practically every case, need to be consulted for the purpose of comparison, correction, etc., or for their historical value in conjunction with the live material on the subject? If so, the investigator would suffer if obsolete treatises were separated from those more up-to-date.

It might be practicable, however, for libraries within a certain radius to decide upon the different classes of books which they will *collect* and *preserve*. Such a plan would not necessarily affect the purchase of any book currently needed, but would make it possible when the pressure for room was felt to weed out from the collections and discard books which had passed from a period of usefulness to one of mere historic interest, because it would be definitely known that elsewhere the books would be preserved.

As we have an A. L. A. list of subject headings so we might have an A. L. A. list of special collections which would give to each librarian a key to the location of historic material on any subject, and, by an increased use of inter-library loans, the work of scholarly investigators would be decidedly helped as, in place of fifty or one hundred incomplete collections of books on a subject, there would be one or more comprehensive collections which would repay the student for the time and money which he might be required to spend in order to reach any collection.

In addition to books on one or on a special subject, each city might preserve the files of its newspapers and with them all that related to its local institutions, history, etc.; thus it would not be necessary for any neighboring libraries to attempt the *preservation* of such material.

Whatever scheme of cooperation is adopted, storage facilities of some sort will have to be provided by large libraries.

It has been the custom to store certain books little in demand, such as public documents, periodicals, transactions of societies, in the basement or attic. The available space has been exhausted in some large libraries, and other accommodation must be provided for such books.

The question arises—shall additional space be secured by building an addition to the existing library building, by limiting the capacity of the main building and providing elsewhere for the surplus, or by fostering special libraries?

In the consideration of the question, stacks as we now understand them are eliminated. They serve their purpose in library buildings proper, being used as a receptacle for books most in demand and which must be directly accessible either to the public or to the staff.

A storage library may be defined as a building or space in a building where a large number of books, whether of long sets, little-used books, duplicates or extra copies for replacement, may be compactly stored and yet be readily accessible. Some European libraries, notably the British Museum, the Bodleian Library and the Hof Bibliothek in Vienna, have been forced to provide just such storage facilities.

Over twenty years ago the British Museum was obliged to economize space in the stack room by installing movable shelving. The description of this shelving is taken from the "London Times" of June 2, 1887.

The iron grated floors of the library are crossed, at intervals corresponding with the width of the individual presses, by half-inch iron girders, four inches in depth. To two of these girders bars of "angle iron" have been fastened, so as to form horizontal ledges at right angles to the girders. A hanging bookcase has been placed between these and made movable by an arrangement of wheels which run along the ledges. In its normal position the hanging case fits back close against the presses behind it, projecting only an inch or so beyond the rail which guards the present presses. When

books from the inner press are required the hanging case is to be pulled forward; it will run easily into the middle of the passage, and may be as easily returned to its place. The case is of sufficient width to hold ordinary-sized books on both sides—that is to say, double the quantity held by the present presses.

In Burgoyne's *Library Construction,* the presses are further described:

When not in use they (the movable bookcases) are pushed up close to the fixed bookcases, and form a projection of about 16 inches from its surface, thus not materially interfering with the light. When books from the inner sides are required, the case is pulled forward on its overhead wheels for a couple of feet, the book obtained, and the case pushed back to its normal position. The weight of a case filled with books averages about 9 cwt., but they are so delicately poised as to be movable with but little exertion.

(In the above descriptions it should be understood that presses refer to an ordinary double-face bookcase.)

No better arrangement has been proposed for the compact shelving of books.

The Hof Bibliothek in Vienna offers a very valuable suggestion of provision for future increase of accommodation. The growth of this great library of a million volumes was absolutely limited by the plans of the palace buildings in which it is housed, when the authorities conceived the idea of excavating their cellars down almost to the foundations of the ponderous masonry. These were so deeply laid that the new cellar stack rooms extend 48 feet below grade, furnishing three stack stories; nevertheless they are not only perfectly dry, well heated and abundantly ventilated, but they receive even considerable daylight by judiciously arranged areas and wells, the light coming in at an angle. Although far underground, they make excellent stack rooms and compel the serious consideration of the advisability of providing cellars more than usually deep, with abundant areas for natural lighting, to be completely finished and fitted up, however, only when the increase of the library shall have filled up the stack space above ground.

The Bodleian Library has just adopted a plan similar to that of the Hof Bibliothek in Vienna. On June 1st of this year, the decree accepting the offer of the Trustees of the Oxford University endowment fund to pay for the construction of an underground chamber for the storage of books belonging to the Bodleian Library, was passed by a large majority.

This action called forth a protest from a correspondent of the *Publisher's Circular*, who wrote:

It may be all right, but unless they are bad books or worthless books they should be placed under the influence of fresh air, sweetness and light in an upper chamber, not in a vault. To construct a healthy, damp-proof underground chamber is almost an impossibility.

The above criticism of the proposed plan would appear to be unfounded, as shown by the experience of the Hof Bibliothek in Vienna.

Early in 1902 the British Museum was compelled to obtain the sanction of the Treasury to the establishment of a separate building for the storage of newspapers, and later in the year Parliament passed an enabling act. In 1905 such a building was erected at Hendon, Middlesex County, a few miles from the British Museum, and in 1906 the newspapers, consisting of 48,000 volumes, were removed to the new repository. Much opposition was made to the establishment of this storehouse at such a distance from the Museum proper, as it was felt by the public generally that it should be nearer.

Through the courtesy of Mr. A. W. K. Miller, the following information regarding the British Museum storehouse for newspapers has been obtained:

The building was erected at a cost of £14,850, the cost of the land (5½ acres) being £2,475. I am unable to say anything as to the comparative value of land at Hendon and in London; the value varies very greatly in different parts of London.

The Repository was intended in the first place to contain English provincial and Scotch and Irish newspapers, the London papers being retained at Bloomsbury; but about 5,000 colonial newspapers have also been sent to Hendon.

The building at present contains about 100,000 volumes, and there is space for about 6,000 more. New buildings can be erected on the land when required.

Newspapers are brought from Hendon to Bloomsbury for the use of readers once in every week. The carriage is done by contract, at the rate of 12/6 each day.

Dr. Eliot's scheme provides for a separate building for the little-used books of the libraries of a given district. He states that

The most obvious considerations of economy demand that disused books, or books very seldom used, should be stored

in inexpensive buildings on cheap land. There is a frightful waste in storing little-used books on land worth a million dollars an acre, if land worth a hundred dollars an acre would answer all reasonable purposes. . . . There should be one storehouse for disused books for the entire district, wherein not more than two copies of any book should be preserved. The interior construction of such a building should differ in important respects from the construction of the ordinary bookstack in use today.

The British Museum's latest plan for newspaper storage is perhaps better than Dr. Eliot's district system because it keeps in one place all books on one subject belonging to the same library, rather than a miscellaneous collection on different subjects owned by several libraries.

The three methods of storage described—compact movable cases, underground storerooms and separate buildings—offer suggestions as to ways by which little-used books may be housed, but the exact plan to be adopted by any library would depend upon special circumstances.

When provision for storage cannot be made in the existing building or in an addition to it, the library may be forced to adopt the plan of placing a building remote from the main library. The funds available for the purpose would determine to a large extent whether this building should be located within the city limits or in a suburban town where real estate would be cheaper. In estimating the relative cost, however, account must be made of the classes of books to be removed, the cost of carriage to and from the storehouse and the expense of administration.

In the future planning of new library buildings this question of storage will probably receive special consideration, and be made a part of the original scheme. This has been done, for example, in the plans recently adopted for the new central library building in Brooklyn, which provide for storage by the extension of the stack proper four stories below the street level, affording space for 75,000 volumes, and by the construction of a special storage stack with accommodation for 593,000 volumes under the delivery and reference rooms in the central portion of the building.

Both sub-basements will be lighted in a manner similar to that employed in the Hof Bibliothek at Vienna, and in consequence will have natural light and direct ventilation. The

sub-basement stack stories will be connected by the same lifts and book carriers as run through the other portions of the stack. The large storage stack in the center of the building will be directly connected by book carriers with the desk in both the delivery and reference rooms so that books placed in storage may be as accessible for use in either the reference or delivery room as those in the upper portion of the building.

In addition provision has been made directly under the newspaper and periodical rooms for the storage of bound newspapers and periodicals, this special storeroom containing over 15,000 running feet of shelving.

THE NEED OF A NATIONAL ARCHIVE BUILDING

Dr. John Franklin Jameson, whose article is given here, was born September 19, 1859, near Boston, Massachusetts. He graduated from Amherst College in 1879; was fellow at Johns Hopkins University in 1881, and received his doctor's degree there in 1882. Honorary degrees were received by him from Amherst College, Johns Hopkins University, the University of Michigan, and from Brown and Princeton Universities.

From 1882 to 1888 he was assistant and associate in history at Johns Hopkins University; from 1888 to 1901, professor of history at Brown University; from 1901 to 1905 he was professor and head of the department of history at the University of Chicago, and since that time has been director of the Department of Historical Research, Carnegie Institution of Washington.

He was managing editor of *The American Historical Review* from 1895 to to 1901 and has been editor of the historical publications of the Carnegie Institution since 1905. Dr. Jameson is the author of several historical books, notably the *Dictionary of United States History,* and he has also edited other historical works.

England, Scotland, Ireland, France, Belgium, the Netherlands, Spain, Portugal, Prussia, Austria, Hungary, Switzerland, Italy, Denmark, Sweden, Norway, Russia, Roumania, Canada, Mexico, Cuba, Colombia—every one of these countries has a national archive, in which all or most of its older records and papers are stored. The presumption must be that there is some merit in the idea of a national archive building. Apparently the burden of proof is on anyone who says that the United States, not the poorest of these countries and we fondly imagine not the least enterprising, ought not to have one. In reality,

no one says this. The obstacle is not opposition, but negligence and inertia, only to be overcome by convincing wise men and influential societies of the need of a federal archive establishment and asking them to help forward the movement toward such a consummation.

The evolution of national archives has in most cases a definite and regular natural history. At first, each government office preserves its own papers. By and by the space available for such documents becomes crowded. The oldest of them, seldom referred to, are sent away, to attics or cellars or vacant rooms in the same or other buildings, it matters little where, in order to make room for the transaction of current business. By and by historians arise. They insist that these dead files are full of historical information, that they are a valuable national asset, that it is shameful to neglect them. At the same time, administrators discover that, whenever administration depends upon the careful study of previous experience, it is inconvenient to have the papers recording that experience scattered through many unsuitable respositories, neglected and unarranged. Then begins a movement for a national archive building, a determination to erect a structure ideally adapted for the storage of documents and their preservation in accessible order and to gather into that one fit place the records which hitherto have lain neglected in a multitude of unfit places. Before the passage of the Public Records Act of 1838, and the consequent erection of the Public Record Office in London, the records of the British government were stored in some sixty different places in that city, some of them atrociously unfit. The building of that admirable repository and its successive enlargements have led to the concentration, under one roof, of the records of nearly all branches of the British administration down to within thirty or forty years of the present time.

The British instance represents a very high degree of concentration. In some other countries, where individual executive departments had long since solidified their respective archives and given them a scientific organization, these collections, instead of being merged in the national archives, have been allowed to maintain a separate existence. Thus in Paris, alongside the Archives Nationales, we find the very important separate establishments of the Archives of the Ministries of

Foreign Affairs, of War, and of Marine, while at Berlin and Vienna, outside the Staatsarchive, the war departments have independent archives of great importance. Most European ministries, however, retain in their own hands only the papers of recent date.

In any grading of archives by the extent to which concentration has been carried, Great Britain and Canada would stand at the highest end of the scale, while the United States would represent the lowest and simplest stage of development. Here in the national capital it has been the practice, from the beginning, that each bureau or division of an executive department should keep its own records and the papers which flow into it in the course of administrative business. Only one department has undertaken to concentrate its archives, the War Department, nearly all whose records and papers have been combined into one collection, under the custody of the adjutant-general. As for federal archives outside Washington, such as the records and papers of custom houses and army posts, no effort has been made to concentrate them. They remain where they always have been, if indeed they remain at all. While every European government has now adopted the policy of transferring from its embassy or legation here in Washington to its home archives all but the last few years' accumulation of papers, our policy, or more correctly, our practice, has been to leave all the archives of embassies, legations and consulates where they are—with effects which can easily be estimated in view of another of our "policies," that of not having permanent homes for our legations in foreign parts.

In Washington the results of what may be called the bureau system of archive management have been exceedingly unhappy. In the first place, it has produced an excessive number of systems of management. To keep a bureau's papers in an order that he who devised it has thought suitable to its business may not seem to be an evil. But the business of bureaus changes, and bureaus are divided and consolidated and extinguished and shifted from department to department, and the result is sometimes an awkward mixture of systems, some of which were amateurish when devised, many of which have become antiquated since that time. But a greater evil than that of having thirty or forty different filing systems is that of having more than a hundred different repositories. This would not be so

great an evil if we had always one variety of papers, and the whole of that variety in one place; but this is wonderfully far from being the case. Let us take for instance those papers which relate to the history of the government of territories before their admission as states of the Union. The administration of the territories was in the hands of the Department of State till 1873, after that in those of the Department of the Interior. There is no portion of the archival papers of the federal government which is more sought for by historical investigators than these, for the energetic western historical societies find them a copious source of knowledge for the earlier periods. But papers of this sort cannot be found in Washington without special guidance. Many, perhaps most, territorial papers of date anterior to 1873 are at the State Department, but some of them are in the Bureau of Indexes and Archives, some in the Bureau of Rolls and Library, and no man can discern or declare how the line of classification is drawn. Of later papers, many are in the files of the Secretary of the Interior. For years there was an informal dispute between the two departments as to the transference of certain masses of territorial papers in 1873, the Department of State maintaining that they had been transferred, the Interior Department, more correctly, that they had not. Many territorial papers, of great historical importance, are in the files of the Senate and House of Representatives. Some have been transferred from the latter to the Library of Congress. Others are in the Stygian darkness of the General Land Office files, others in those of the Treasury Department, in those of the Indian Office, in those of the inspector-general of the United States army, or in the enormous archives of the adjutant-general.

But dispersion is not the only, or the worst, evil that has flowed from the present system, or want of system, whereby each bureau is in the main left to keep its own papers. It is 125 years since some of these bureaus and divisions were founded. In much less than 125 years a bureau will accumulate enough records and papers to occupy more than all the space originally assigned to it. Those least needed are packed away, in attics and in cellars, over porticoes and under stairs, in closets and in abandoned doorways, till a building is so full that it will hold no more, if any proper space is to be reserved

for the work of officials and clerks. Then warehouses, in almost no case fireproof, are rented to contain the overflow. The Treasury Department has to rent an additional warehouse every five or ten years, merely to hold the fresh accumulation of its papers. Not a mile from this spot, for instance, there is a warehouse in which papers of the Treasury Department have simply been dumped on the floor—boxes, bundles, books, loose papers—till the pile reaches well toward the ceiling; and no man knows what it contains, or could find in it any given book or paper. For quarters of this sort, in buildings usually unsafe and always unsuitable, the government pays each year, counting only the space devoted to storage of records and papers, rentals aggregating between $40,000 and $50,000, more than the interest it would pay on a million. For that sum an excellent archive building could be erected, capable of housing not only all these papers which departments have stored outside their walls, but also all the dead files which occupy space and impede business within the departmental buildings themselves.

These are general statements. Let us mention specific instances. The librarian who is "doing" the sights of Washington may be interested to know, as he gazes at the beautiful proportions of the Treasury Building, that in its attic story several miles of wooden shelving contain old Treasury papers, closely packed together and dry as tinder, which up to the present time have not succumbed to spontaneous combustion under our August sun. If he pauses for a moment to look with pleasure at the sunken fountain at the north end of the Treasury, it may augment his pride in the ingenuity of his government to know that a portion of its Treasury archives is stored in chambers constructed around the substructure of the fountain. If by mistake he goes to the old building of the Corcoran Art Gallery instead of the new, he will be compensated by the unusual sight, in the basement, of a body of governmental records so stored that in a dry season they can be consulted by any person wearing rubber overshoes, while in a wet season they are accessible by means of some old shutters laid on the basement floor. At the General Land Office (really the worst case of all) he may see a body of archives representing the titles to four hundred million acres of formerly public but now private lands, stored in a place not,

I think, as fit for the purpose as the average librarian's coal-cellar—certainly not as fit as mine. If he goes into the Pension Office building, he will find the rich and interesting archives of the Indian Office stored in the court-yard. As he looks at the small dome that surmounts the House wing of the Capitol, he may reflect with pleasure that the old files of the House of Representatives are stored, in open boxes, in a manner not unlike that formerly followed by country lawyers, in the stifling heat of the space between roof and ceiling of the dome.

Danger of destruction by fire is constant under such circumstances. It is surprising that fires have not been more frequent. But they have occurred several times in former years, and only last summer a fire in the building of the Geological Survey burned up papers which it had cost $100,000 to produce. There are half a dozen places in Washington where, if an extensive fire should break out, it might in a few hours, by burning up the documents with which claims against the government are defended, cause the government to lose several times the cost of a good national archive building.

Probably there is no repository for government papers in Washington, except the Division of Manuscripts in the Library of Congress, which is strictly fireproof in the fullest sense; but danger from fire is not the only peril to which archives are now exposed. Some of the places where they are stored are damp. In others there is local dampness from steam pipes and leaky roofs. In many there is injury from dust and dirt, in nearly all the grossest overcrowding. As to search and use, it is sometimes impossible, usually difficult. So dark are many repositories that when Messrs. Van Tyne and Leland were preparing their Guide to the Archives of the Government in Washington, an electric searchlight was a necessary part of their equipment. Armed with this, they could read the labels on the bundles or the legends on the backs of bound volumes, whenever these had not rotted off from dampness or excessive dryness. By way of contrast to the literary search-rooms in the Public Record Office in London or the Archives Nationales in Paris, in which fifty or a hundred historical scholars can work amid conditions resembling those which you, ladies and gentlemen, offer to readers in your libraries, the courageous student of this country's history is fortunate if, after the volume or bundle has been dragged from its darksome lair, an obliging

clerk—and nearly all government clerks in Washington are obliging—clears upon some heavily burdened desk or table a space two feet square which the student can use for the study of his documents.

To me, and to many of those who hear me, the main reason for interesting ourselves in the problems of a national archive building is that present conditions interpose almost intolerable obstacles to the progress of history. We may reasonably expect that this should also seem to legislators a serious matter. An enlightened government, a government whose success depends on the intelligence of public opinion, cannot afford to be indifferent to the advancement of historical knowledge. The government of the United States should do far more for it than it does. It would be a perfectly justifiable expenditure if on this ground alone, merely as the first step toward a proper cultivation of the national history, our government should spend $1,000,000 or $1,500,000 in erecting a perfect archive building, in which the historian could find and use his materials. But as the actual world goes, we are to expect business consideration to have greater weight than the interests of history. Very well. Put the matter on that ground. Is it good business for a government to spend $50,000 a year for rental of bad quarters, when for the same sum capitalized it could build magnificent quarters with much greater capacity? Is it good business for a government that can borrow at three per cent to pay rentals of ten per cent? It certainly is not thought so when the question is one of building local post-offices. The trusts and other great business corporations think it indispensable to have the most modern filing systems, installed in fireproof buildings. To neglect such precautions may some day cost them too much; to be unable to find papers quickly would cost them too much every day. But the greatest of all American business organizations is the Treasury Department of the United States. Its papers accumulate at the rate of 25,000 cubic feet per annum. It needs at this moment not less than 600,000 cubic feet of space in a modern archive building. What has it, this greatest of business concerns in the most businesslike of countries? It has an attic with miles of wooden shelving on which its papers crumble and fall to pieces from heat, and a sub-basement in which they rot to pieces from dampness. It rents two floors and part of another floor in a storage ware-

house on E Street, a warehouse on New York Avenue, part of a building on C Street, part of a building on Fourteenth Street, part of a building on F Street. Two of these it will soon give up, happy to use instead the cast-off building of the Bureau of Engraving and Printing. It uses the basement of the old Court of Claims building and a part of the old Post-Office building, and has filled the old Winder building with files until it was forced to stop because the floors could not safely bear any more weight. If a paper more than forty years old, of certain sorts, is desired, it may take several days to find it. I do not need to ask whether this is intelligent and economical administration. I have wished merely to emphasize the thought that, if this national archive building comes into existence, as surely it some time will, it will be brought into being, less by the clamor of historians, a feeble folk relatively, than by the steady and powerful pressure of administrators, worried beyond endurance by the increase of files and painfully conscious of the drag which primitive methods of storage impose on the progress of government business.

Administrative eagerness to find a remedy has sought more than one outlet. One is the destruction of useless papers, but this is only a partial remedy. It is perfectly true that many papers of little or no worth beyond the year of their origin have been preserved. One might wish that some of these were burned up. Under existing conditions, as I have shown, some of them are likely to be. But a conflagration cannot be expected to make an intelligent selection of material, and government officials, for that matter, cannot do it perfectly. We have statutes for the destruction of useless papers, but they are very loose in comparison with those of Europe, and give no security that papers useless for administration but valuable for history will be preserved. Not so many years ago, ten tons of Confederate records were barely rescued from the paper-mill, and the schedules of the earlier censuses, though since then the latter have formed the basis of valued historical publications.

Another expedient that has been occasionally suggested has been the transfer of "dead files" to the Library of Congress. It needs but a little thought upon considerations of space to show the futility of such a plan. Where should the Library of Congress find space for two or three million cubic feet of

archive material? Some might say that at least such papers as are historically important might be sent to the Library. But, quite apart from the fact that this offers no relief to the government, which as we have seen is the greatest sufferer from the present conditions, it is impossible to accept the underlying assumption that there is a small and perfectly distinguishable portion of the government archives which is historically important, while the rest is not. A jury of the most experienced historians would be the first to declare that no one can tell what the historians of the next age will value as materials, and the first to protest against a process of tearing away certain papers, assumed to be historical, from the remaining series with which they have been associated and which help to explain their origin. Moreover, library administration is one thing, and archive administration, especially for purposes of government business as distinguished from purposes of history, is a quite different thing. The present Librarian of Congress could administer an archive alongside his library, indeed could administer forty archives, because he could administer anything. But that hardly covers the point. Essentially a librarian's business is different from an archivist's business; no national government combines the two, and, anyhow, a makeshift transference of a small part of the government's archives to the Library of Congress would be no real solution of the difficulties.

The only satisfactory and proper means of escape from the present disgraceful conditions is that which other nations have adopted, the erection of a national archive building in this city, of a size sufficient to contain all the papers that all the executive departments and the Senate and House of Representatives may send to it, and with a large allowance for future growth. Essentially a honeycomb of stacks resembling those of a library, it should have an initial capacity of three million cubic feet, and should be built on a lot of land large enough to admit of extension to nine million without exceeding the height usual among our government buildings. The prediction can be made with confidence, and is supported by the experience of other nations, that while executive officers may at first transfer somewhat sparingly the records and papers they have long had nominally under their control, they will not take long to discover that needles can be more quickly found

in a needle-shop than in a haystack; and as the advantages of an orderly archive come to be appreciated, more and more of the archival papers will be transferred to the new establishment.

Yet, though it shall be large, our national archive building need not be alarmingly expensive. No ornate palace should be contemplated. If the exterior is to suit the contents, it should be plain, yet it may easily be beautiful. I know from the word of a friend that the greatest architect of the last generation said that he should like nothing better than to try his hand on a national archive building. At a cost well inside fifty cents a cubic foot, or $1,500,000 for a building of the dimensions I have described, it should be possible for the United States to have the finest archive building in the world, perfect in every appointment, based on the best experience of Europe, and adequate for every purpose of the immediate future. This is the end toward which we ought to aspire and labor.

Into the details of the construction of such a building and of the organization of an archive establishment there is no time to enter. They are abundantly set forth in Mr. W. G. Leland's masterly article entitled "Our national archives: a programme," in the American Historical Review for October, 1912.

Efforts to secure such a building as I have in general terms described have not been lacking, nor are they a thing of yesterday. As far back as 1878, the quartermaster-general of the army recommended the erection of a "hall of records" for preservation of the records of the executive departments not required for daily reference, and drafted a plan for the proposed structure. That was thirty-six years ago. Since then there has perhaps been only one year in which the erection of a national archive building has not been pressed upon the attention of Congress, with greater or less urgency, by one or other members of the cabinet. At least fifty bills on the subject have been introduced in Congress. Nearly all have found permanent resting-places in the pigeonholes of committees. On two occasions, in 1881 and in 1902, the Senate passed bills providing for an archive building; but the House took no action on them. Finally, in 1903, after an agitation covering a quarter of a century, Congress authorized the purchase of

a site for such a building. The site was purchased, but has since been assigned to another building. Meanwhile, within the thirty-six years during which this agitation by executive departments has been going on, Congress has expended at least $250,000,000 for public buildings, and $200,000,000 of that sum for local postoffices, courthouses and customhouses.

In recent years, the agitation has been taken up by various societies of patriotic intention. Nearly six years ago the American Historical Association addressed Congress on the subject, appointed a committee, arranged for useful hearings, and has continued to press the matter upon successive Congresses. Many chapters of the Daughters of the American Revolution have taken part in the endeavor. Recently the National Society of the Sons of the American Revolution has taken it up with much energy. The Public Buildings Act of March 3, 1913, authorized the Secretary of the Treasury to make plans for an archive building; but Congress made no appropriation of money for the planning, and without it nothing could be done. The result of thirty-six years of agitation can be summed up by saying that an item of $5,000 for the making of such plans, in the provisional manner in which alone they can be made before a site is selected, is now before the House Committee on Appropriations, as a part of the Sundry Civil Appropriations bill. Its fate will be known in a few days. This result, after thirty-six years of entreaty and appeal along lines of argument which were obvious thirty-six years ago and in thirty-six years have not been confuted, seems somewhat meagre. But I remember that it was about 1616 when one Francis Bacon recommended the establishment of a General Record Office for the kingdom of England and about 1856 when the first section of that building was erected. Two hundred and forty years, for a thing for which that capacious mind foresaw all the convincing arguments in 1616! We have still some time. Two hundred and forty years from 1878 would bring us only to 2118 A. D. But can we not beat the English record? Can we not, by keeping public opinion alive on a subject of so much importance from the historical and the governmental points of view, carry this great national undertaking along steadily through the stages of making plans, acquiring a site and constructing the building, and have an archive to be proud of before we have here a national calamity

resembling, but with perhaps larger proportions, the great fire at Albany?

The address of Dr. Jameson was given at the Conference of the American Library Association held at Washington in May, 1914. At the close of his talk Dr. Gaillard Hunt and Mr. Victor Hugo Paltsits were called upon to discuss the paper. Dr. Hunt, chief of the Division of Manuscripts in the Library of Congress, said in part:

Dr. Jameson is correct. There is not in the city of Washington a single government department that knows what it has in its archives; there is not one that knows what it has not got; there is not one where all the archives are available for historical or administrative purposes.

We are about to approach a commemoration of peace, but war sometimes confers favors in unexpected quarters. And the War of 1812 and the invasion of the city of Washington by the British were great boons to some of the curators of government archives in Washington. Whenever any archives antedating 1814 cannot be found, blame it on the War of 1812! This has become such a habit that I have known a clerk, when a paper was called for, to reply promptly: "The British destroyed it in the War of 1812," when that particular paper was dated in 1815. There are the archives of the House of Representatives, for example. That institution was sacked by the British while the Senate escaped. The House archives, we have often been told, were destroyed. Now, ladies and gentlemen, I have seen the archives of the House of Representatives, and how on earth the British in 1814 destroyed more papers dated in 1815 than in 1813 I do not quite understand! The archives immediately after 1814 are a little bit worse than the archives before 1814.

It is not necessary to add a word to what Dr. Jameson has said about the necessity of the preservation of archives for the use of the historian. In speaking to an audience of librarians, that goes without saying, as all of you are engaged in the business of conserving the record of knowledge in order that it may serve historical purposes. We are all agreed that for historical purposes it is absolutely necessary that the archives should be better preserved than they are; but from

abundance of experience I may say a word about the necessity of the preservation of the archives for administrative purposes. Ours is a popular government and its personnel changes, and every three or four years the head of a department changes and his chief subordinates are changed. He comes from active political life, active professional life, or active business life. He never comes from active department life. For him there is the duty of carrying out some broad policy upon which the people have voted. But he is the head of a great machine. Dr. Jameson says that the Treasury Department is the largest corporation in the United States; but very nearly as large are the Interior Department and the Postoffice Department. In fact, we have in Washington the largest corporation in the United States represented by the government; but the head of each branch of the corporation, in the nature of things, know little of the machinery over which he presides. It is a complicated machinery. We who live in Washington know that the government departments have power over the individual rights and over public rights, that is put into effect daily and hourly. The decisions that are made on the innumerable questions that arise are like the decisions of the courts. They follow one another; they depend upon precedent. Those decisions are a part of the records of the departments. They cannot be correctly reached unless the records are available, and all the records are not available. The result is that the decisions of the department are not always correct, that they are sometimes contradictory, and that there is an enormous waste of time in going over and over again the ground that has been gone over before, but the record of which is not readily accessible or may be lost. In my experience I have seen it a hundred times—the new official treading laboriously the path that has been trodden by one of equal ability with himself in the past and usually reaching the same conclusions, when, if the record had been put before him, he could have saved his time and the continuity or stability of government practice would not have been endangered. More in our government—where the head of a department constantly changes, where the head of a bureau constantly changes—more than in other governments where there is a governing class, is it necessary that there should be conservation of the record of what has been done before.

I was reading the other night Hume's History of England, and I came across this remark: He said that the regret frequently expressed by historical scholars that there was no record of the proceedings of the original Britons was a regret that was uncalled for, because the actions of barbarians are based upon impulse and not upon reason, and really furnish nothing of entertainment or instruction to the civilized man. I could not help thinking that the fathers of our country, who have had the management of our government, must have thought that they were barbarians, and that it was better to destroy a record which contained nothing that would be of profit or of interest to their posterity.

Now, one of the faults I have to find with us librarians is that we are prone to look upon a piece of work, because we love it, as an end unto itself. But, as I see it, we discuss a question with a definite object in view. So in discussing Dr. Jameson's paper we must remember that we are not appealing to ourselves, that we are not discussing it for our own pleasure, but that we are doing it in order to reach a body of men upon Capitol Hill who have the power to do what we want done. Let us remember that before we are librarians we are citizens of the United States, that the present condition of our records is a disgrace to each and all of us, and that we can change it. When Congress sits, a thousand measures press for consideration. It takes up those for which the pressure is obvious. There is only one thing necessary for us to do, therefore, and that is to crystallize the belief that is in each and every one of us here tonight, that we need and must have an archive building, into an obvious demand. Embody it into joint action of the whole society, and individual importunity on the part of every member, and success will crown our efforts.

Mr. Victor Hugo Paltsits, chairman of the Public Archives Commission of the American Historical Association followed in the discussion; his address, in part, is given here:

We have been reminded of the importance of conserving manuscripts in order that there might be some better judgment than fire in weeding them out. A few years ago I had the opportunity to speak for some time during a summer vaca-

tion with a former speaker of Congress, and our conversation drifted to the accumulation of records in this capital city. He mentioned the fact that from the first census until the census just preceding the time of our conversation there had accumulated great masses of schedules, and that a congressional committee had determined that some of these might be burned in order to make room in the city of Washington. And he said with characteristic English that may not be repeated in polite society, "Why, you ought to have heard the howl from all over the United States from everybody who has ancestors." Well, I tried to impress upon him the fact that even schedules might have value. It is the business of the Public Archives Commission of the American Historical Association to promote a conscience not only here, but throughout the nation—a conscience that will respect the muniments of the American people, whether they repose in federal depositories or whether they be in states, counties, cities, towns, boroughs or villages.

Dr. Jameson's description of conditions in Washington reminded me of some of the things I have heard with reference to village records stored over barber shops, furniture shops and paint shops, usually associated with the greatest means to conflagration. We are interested in conservation, we are interested in coordination, and here in Washington the problem of coordination rests upon the provision of a national archive building. Why is it that administrative records are so usually neglected, whilst the title deeds, the testamentary archives and the records of courts are, I might say, always better kept than any others? In fact, the others may merely exist under similar conditions to those portrayed to us respecting the Treasury papers in Washington. It is because there is a bench and a bar active in every community. It is because testamentary papers and title deeds represent money—an immediate or apparent asset to the people.

Now, with the same spirit of earnestness exhibited by the legal profession and by the courts, the body of American historical scholars, the body of American economic scholars, the body of American political scientists and similar national bodies appeal to the conscience of Congress for the conservation, for the coordination, for the proper administration of the great federal archives. We are not willing, Dr. Jameson, I am sure, to wait for more than two centuries for proper pro-

visions, as the people and our friends of Great Britain waited.

Recently in the city of New York during an examination of various departmental records, I found the administration records less cared for than the title records, the testamentary records and the court records. The records of the county clerk of the city and county of New York are mostly in the Hall of Records building, erected at an expense of some $12,000,000, I believe. They are on the eighth floor and in the attic above, in the custody of the commissioner of records of the county, and in that jurisdiction there is a fine modern steel equipment for the records, which consist of those of the old chancery and vice-chancery courts; the now extinct court of oyer and terminer; the court of common pleas; the supreme court, etc., all records of a legal nature. This steel equipment has cost some $400,000 for this department. In the same building are the records of the surrogates' court, and they have an equipment of their own in modern form, with indexes of all records kept according to law; and in the same building are the records of the register, filed on roller shelves and in metal cabinets. During the past three years the city and county of New York alone has spent $100,000 each year for the reindexing bureau of the register's office, to index and coordinate the conveyances and open mortgages of the pieces of property in the original county of New York, and that territory known as the Bronx recently separated from it, upon a block and section system. When we go into our finance department records, Dr. Jameson, we find conditions perhaps a little better than you do in the Treasury Department; yet there are evidences of neglect and great disorder. The only way by which we can bring about a better system, particularly with regard to the administrative records, is by a united effort of every national or local body interested in culture, in patriotism and in good government, and on behalf of the American Library Association, as one of its members, I have the honor to present to the Association a brief resolution, and ask, after it be read, that it be committed to the Council for its consideration.

THE CARE OF MANUSCRIPTS

In an address before the American Library Association, in 1897, Dr. Herbert Friedenwald, chief of the Division of Manuscripts in the Library of Congress from 1897 to 1900, describes the methods adopted by the library to guard the manuscript treasures of the Government.

Dr. Friedenwald was born at Baltimore, Maryland, September 20, 1870. He graduated in 1890 from Johns Hopkins University and, in 1894, received the degree of Ph.D. from the University of Pennsylvania.

No object that has ever had connection with the life of a man of renown bears so personal a relation to him as a piece of his manuscript. No treasures that come to a library are so precious as its manuscript collections. They are usually unique, and in but few instances have ever seen the light of the printer's day. Even where that has happened their value is not decreased, in that the manuscript must ever remain the final authority, the ultimate appeal, in cases of disputed rendering of the originals. In the case of scientific works of great importance they are often of inestimable value for indicating the development of the author's ideas, and of the method of their expression, while the work as printed gives but a presentation of the completed thought.

Restoration

It is proper and necessary, therefore, that manuscripts should be given a special and different care from that accorded even the rarest books. The latter, by means of substantial or extravagant binding, may readily be put in a way to last for all time. Far more attention, however, must be bestowed upon manuscripts.

Where they are received already restored, mounted and bound, the problem of their care is much simplified, and resolves itself

into the elements of stamping, cataloging and shelving. But when manuscripts are purchased or donated in a condition that means increased injury after every handling, they must be restored, as nearly as may be, to their original state and made proof against further damage. For, in view of the constantly increasing estimate put upon the value of original material, it must be expected that a manuscript will be called for and consulted with as great frequency as one of the rarer books. They should, therefore, be so put in order that access to them is obtainable whenever properly in demand, and that they may be used without injury.

The first step, consequently, is the restoration of the manuscript. For it is no longer thought proper simply to paste it in a book, without regard to whether the edges be ragged and the body be stained and crease-marked or not. Nor does the process of restoration merely mean piecing out the torn edges by pasting on bits of paper, nor yet filling up the holes in similar manner.

The work is begun by selecting from a stock of old paper a piece of the color, and, as nearly as possible, of the texture of the paper of the document itself. It is then placed on a lithographer's stone and moistened, when necessary, in order to remove the creases. The pieces that are to be attached are cut of the proper size, and, with an instrument resembling a shoemaker's awl, have their edges shaved down to their thinnest proportions. They are then skilfully fitted and pasted to the manuscript, with a paste the chief ingredient of which is rice flour. The unnecessary paste is then washed off, the manuscript is put between sheets of paper which in turn are placed between other sheets of blotting-paper to absorb the moisture, and thus surrounded, it is put under great pressure in a letterpress, where it is allowed to remain for several days. Without calling the latter into requisition all the other work would count for nothing.

Had the manuscript been otherwise weak, a more vigorous treatment would have been requisite. Were the paper exceptionally thin and almost brittle, it would have been necessary to strengthen it by attaching either transparent linen tracing-cloth or ordinary paraffine paper used by florists, to the whole of the manuscript. To prevent curling the material intended to strengthen should in any event be attached to both sides of

the sheets. The paraffine paper gives as satisfactory results as the heavier linen cloth, and is much less clumsy in appearance. I have seen documents that before restoration in this manner were so fragile as almost to crumble at a touch, yet which bore the appearance of having been treated to a coat of shellac rather than having been put through any other process. The letterpress must in any event be used, since it acts as a splint in cases of fracture, enabling the parts to knit in as nearly normal a manner as possible, with no shrinking or dislocation.

Stamping

The manuscript must now be stamped, having thus been restored to its youthful appearance by the application of this elixir of life.

A diversity of opinion still exists respecting the advisability of stamping valuable manuscripts. As the object to be attained, however, is the prevention of the theft or disposal of the manuscripts, this can best be brought about by the use of a stamp. For various reasons, not the least of which is the little injury it does the manuscript, the embossing stamp is to be preferred. The size should not be too great; it should, of course, contain the name of the institution to which it belongs, and where possible, for convenience's sake, the designation of the series or collection of which it forms a part. Room should also be left for the addition of the number of the manuscript.

Mounting and Binding

The next proceeding is that of mounting and binding. The first question that looms into prominence here is that of the proportions of the volumes. The sheets upon which the manuscripts are to be mounted must have ample but not too large margins; and as manuscripts vary in size even when belonging to the same collection, each volume should be sufficiently large to hold the largest manuscripts without folding. Uniformity of size where documents belong to the same series must also be maintained wherever possible. Great care should be taken to have the volumes of light weight even at the risk of increasing the number rather than few and consequently heavy and bulky. For the amount of abuse a volume receives is in proportion to the effort required in order to handle it. If the

document forms part of a collection that is constantly on the increase, some form of binding should be utilized that is out of the ordinary. A flexible binder of the nature of that devised by the lamented Dr. Stone, late librarian of the Historical Society of Pennsylvania, should be used. This, while giving stability to the collection, yet permits of the extraction or addition of individual sheets whenever the occasion requires it.

When it is found necessary to remove old bindings, that have at one time been put about manuscripts, they should not be destroyed, but should be carefully preserved for purposes of reference. And when taken apart the backs of the old bindings should be carefully examined, for occasions are not infrequent when valuable manuscript or printed material has thus been found.

The question of caring for individual manuscripts, such as letters and documents of that nature, having but a slight connection with the rest of the collections, is one that also requires attention. When not suitable for purposes of exhibition (to which by reason of their detached nature they often particularly well lend themselves) they should be put away in cardboard boxes or in heavy envelopes made of manila paper. These should be of convenient size and should be suitably labelled. The manuscripts must, of course, first have been restored and mounted, and they may then safely remain thus cared for until the opportunity arises for binding them with other manuscripts.

Classification

The classification of manuscripts permits of development somewhat on the lines of that of books. But as no two collections are ever alike, each keeper must necessarily devise a system of classification suitable to the conditions under which he is working. An alphabetical designation may prove convenient, or else, as is often done, some special distinctive symbol may be utilized to characterize the individual collections.

The enumeration of the pieces may be by series or may embrace the collection as a whole. The latter mode has much to recommend it, in that it gives a convenient means of reference in supplement to the alphabetical or special designation. For each piece is thus given an individuality of its own and at the same time a definite place in the collection.

In the shelving and storing of manuscripts too great care cannot be exercised. They should of course be put in a fireproof vault or chamber, or where the building is fireproof in a section or department by themselves. As an extra precaution against dust and other destructive processes, they should be kept under glass or in dust-proof drawers, and always under lock and key.

Cataloging

In cataloging some distinctive mark or symbol must be used to indicate at a glance that the reference is to a volume or a document in the manuscript department. For this purpose the ordinary mss. symbol will answer as well as any other. The cards should be kept separated from the book-cards in order that the distinction may be all the more marked. As the collections are so entirely different from the others in the library there is no need to complicate matters by distributing the manuscript cards among the other cards.

The title upon the card should consist of the name of the collection of which the document forms a part. If the document be a letter, as is often the case, there should follow the name of the writer and the name of the person to whom the letter is addressed, with the date and place of writing. Then should come a description of the size and the number of pages. If in a foreign language, the language should be indicated, as also the character of the material upon which the manuscript is written. If a signed letter or an autograph letter, the commonly used abbreviation L. S. or A. L. S. should be added. The cross-references should be to the name of the writer and that of the recipient.

In the case of literary or scientific manuscripts of considerable bulk (most often of books already published) the ordinary method of book cataloging with the manuscript department symbol added may be resorted to. In the margin of the card should be put the designation of the series with the number of the document, and as well, if the document cataloged be one in a large number of volumes of that series, the number of the volume and the page on which it may be found, when the latter is necessary.

Exhibition

No part of the care of manuscripts is more interesting and at the same time more valuable from the point of view of

attracting gifts and deposits than that of their exhibition. The glass cases to be used for this purpose should be specially designed and constructed to meet the conditions of light and size, etc. of the exhibition-room. But too little attention has been paid to this important branch of the care of manuscripts. And by reason of the special knowledge required in order that manuscripts may be exhibited to the best advantage, the question of their installation should not be entered upon until after careful consultation with museum experts. For the many points of advantageous light, of height and depth and width of the cases, can best be looked after by those who have been specially trained for this work.

Whenever manuscripts are exhibited they should be accompanied by carefully prepared labels printed on cards and in a clearly legible type.

Calendaring

With his collections well bound and cared for, no keeper should rest satisfied until a calendar of them, at least, is in print. This holds particularly true in our country and of the manuscripts relating to its history. Its vast extent and the consequent wide distribution of collections makes it impossible that the historical student can have access to more than a small portion of those he desires to consult. If anything can be accomplished, therefore, by this means, to lighten his labors and enable him to perfect his work, it should be done.

The calendar form need not be adhered to too vigorously, for the dull page may occasionally be enlivened by a brief quotation from an important manuscript. A few words thus taken from the original document often express the idea it is desired to convey far better than an abstract. Nor will the calendar be complete unless the language in which the manuscript is written and its size and number of pages be indicated. For convenience in reference to the original the designating mark belonging to the manuscript should be appended. Nor should an index be overlooked.

Conclusion

None but persons known to the one in charge of the manuscripts, or those who come to him well accredited, should be permitted to have access to them. And if copies are allowed to be made, it were best that by reason of the carelessness

of some, all be put to a slight inconvenience, and that no ink be allowed to be used.

When it is known that collections are thus carefully guarded and preserved in so painstaking a manner, their increase will result from the diffusion of this information. For persons who have manuscripts to dispose of, and who desire to give or deposit them where they will be put beyond the range of injury, will naturally give them into the care of such institutions as best care for them, as best exhibit them, and where they can be made of the greatest use by the greatest number.

THE CARE OF SPECIAL COLLECTIONS

In this article by Mr. Wilberforce Eames, which is somewhat abridged here, he discusses the care of rare books and their use in exhibitions, also the preservation of newspapers and loose material.

Mr. Eames was born at Newark, New Jersey, October 12, 1855. He has received honorary degrees from Harvard and Brown Universities and the University of Michigan. In 1885 he was an assistant in the Lenox Library, and he became its librarian in 1893. Since its consolidation with the New York Public Library he has continued his editorial and bibliographical work there.

My remarks on the care of special collections will be restricted chiefly to the methods in use, or in contemplation for use, at the Lenox branch of the New York Public Library.

Rare Books

I find that one of the subjects assigned to me is the treatment of rare books. For that matter it is well to state, at the outset, that in the arrangement of the Lenox collections no books are classed as rare or curious. They are treated, in fact, from a practical standpoint only, and are arranged according to their subjects and periods, with regard to the purposes for which they can best be used.

One of the specialities of the library being early American history, the books relating to that subject which were printed before 1800, are, with some few exceptions, shelved by themselves in chronological order, under the dates of publication, and in this way they form a sort of reserved group, in which the rarer and more valuable editions are included. When they are called into use, the reader is invited into a section of the reading-room set apart for the purpose, and the books are placed before him on cloth-covered tables, where they are used under supervision. Publications of early date in English literature

and in other subjects are arranged in a similar way, and are treated with equal care.

Many of the more valuable books are reserved for the exhibition-room, where they are placed open in glass show-cases, which are made as nearly dust-tight as possible. Here, again, nothing is admitted merely because it is rare or curious. As the exhibition is mainly for educational purposes, the exhibits are selected with that end in view, and they are arranged in a systematic order.

I believe that this feature of the library is one of the most practical uses to which rare books can be put. It certainly attracts people, and if we may judge by the thousands who visit the place every year, in increasing numbers, it must be appreciated by book-lovers and educators. There is a good deal to be learned from an exhibition of this kind. Among those who come are teachers with their classes and library schools with their instructors; visitors from out of town and tourists from abroad; and many with their note-books, jotting down the things they wish to remember. Indeed, those who come once generally come again and bring their friends with them. He who is interested in the origin and history of printing will find the record fully laid out before him, beginning with the earliest products of the art in all parts of the world; the student of English literature can trace here its growth from the first book ever printed in the English tongue down to the days of Spenser, Shakespeare and Milton; the biblical scholar will see the ancient text and versions of the scriptures, in their primitive rolls, parchments and most famous editions; and the specialist in American history will meet with the most important original material from the time of Columbus to the formation of our national government. Some come to see the first printed book, or the first Homer, or the first English Bible; and others to look on the handwriting of Milton, or on Jefferson's autograph manuscript of the Declaration of Independence, or on the original manuscript of Washington's Farewell Address.

In this way we aim to encourage and satisfy the desire of many to see the most famous land-marks of history and literature, and at the same time to save the volumes from unnecessary handling. As it may interest others to know what subjects we have chosen for illustration by means of rare books,

in the manner described, I will name the principal of them here: 1st, ancient manuscripts; 2d, book illumination and miniature painting; 3d, artistic bookbinding, principally of early date; 4th, block-books, or printing before the invention of movable type; 5th, the origin of typographic printing in Europe, Asia and Africa; 6th, early printing in North and South America; 7th, early wood-engraving, copper-engraving and book illustrations; 8th, early educational literature, and books for the instruction of children, from 1450 to 1800; 9th, early editions of the Bible in various languages; 10th, old English literature; 11th, early voyages and travels to India and the East; 12th, early maps and the progress of geographical discovery; 13th, the discovery, settlement and early history of America; 14th, the Indian wars of New England; 15th, American newspapers of the 18th century; 16th, the American stamp act and Revolution; 17th, notable publications of early date on the arts and sciences; and 18th, autographs of famous persons. There is in preparation a handlist of this material, for the use of visitors, which will contain brief historical and explanatory notes.

We are sometimes asked whether exposure to light does not injure the books and manuscripts which lie open in the showcases. I do not believe that it does, if the sunlight is avoided, and if the dust is not allowed to get on the open pages. Some of our volumes and manuscripts have been on exhibition, in one position, for nearly 20 years, and I doubt if many persons could pick out the pages that have been so exposed without a very close examination.

Rare books, like other books, should have air. It is a mistake to shut them up behind glass doors, or in close closets, where the air cannot circulate behind and around them. If they must be locked up it is better to have open wire doors. Where the shelves are not well ventilated the books will mould or grow musty. At the Lenox building we formerly used glass doors on some of the wall-cases, where the early printed books are kept, but the glass frames were all removed some years ago, and now we have wire screens in their stead. Another mistake, I think, is the general belief that dust will injure rare books. Ordinarily it will not, for where there is plenty of dust there is likely to be air also. I have no doubt that many books have been preserved in good condition merely by being well covered with dust for a long period. There is much more

danger from heat and change in temperature. During the winter season the hot air with which our building is heated causes the vellum bindings to curl out and spread so much that many of the volumes have to be tied shut in order to keep them on the shelves. I believe that stack-rooms should be kept moderately cool or at an even temperature all the year round.

Newspapers

Bound files of newspapers usually get a pretty rough handling, they are likely to suffer much from mutilation by dishonest readers. We have made a specialty of collecting early American newspapers, and particularly of those printed in the 18th century. A list of this collection was printed at the end of our 25th annual report, two years ago, and this list tells, under each year, from 1704 to 1800, how many numbers of each paper were on hand, and what months they cover. I mention it now because it illustrates the chronological method of listing old newspapers. One can see at a glance just what kind of material there is for any one year. We have found the plan very useful.

Since the list was printed large additions have been made to the collection, which comprises now about 25,000 numbers for the period named. Many of the papers are in poor condition; some have been through fire and water, others are so worn by former use that they have to be handled with great care, and all of them are expensive. After consulting the wise men of Philadelphia and New York, we decided to bind each newspaper file in yearly volumes, mounting each leaf on guards, and interleaving each number with a sheet of stiff paper. In the course of binding different lots we hit upon some improvements, and the sample volume I have here to-day exhibits the result of our latest experiments. The binding is of half morocco, and the guards on which the leaves are mounted are of thin yet tough paper, set out far enough to let the leaves lie nearly flat. The stiff paper between each number is half an inch larger all the way around than the newspaper it protects, so that in turning over the leaves it is not necessary to touch the newspaper at all. Wherever numbers happen to be lacking, space is reserved in each case by putting in the guards as full leaves, any one of which can be cut down to a stub for mounting on whenever a missing number is found. This

arrangement is the best we have been able to devise for preserving and protecting the oldest and most valuable class of newspapers. The cost of the binding (Stikeman's) is about $4 for each volume.

To treat newspapers of the present century in the same way would not be advisable, because it would be too expensive. A moderate amount of interleaving with stiff manila paper could be recommended in some cases, when the newspapers are not in good condition. In our classification we have placed the early printed newspapers in a room by themselves, apart from the files of modern newspapers, and when they are needed for reference, extra care is enjoined. Our usage would favor a separate catalog for the newspapers.

Broadsides

Printed broadsides, leaflets and single sheets of early date are laid each one in a paper wrapper, which is lettered on the side and placed flat with others in its proper drawer or box. For the early printed broadsides we prefer the chronological arrangement under groups; for those of later date, the classification of ordinary books, treating them with reference to their local interest in many cases; and we would catalog each piece as if it were a book.

Maps

Loose maps and plans are treated in a manner like the broadsides. Dividing them into two sizes, those under and those over 2½ by 2 feet, our usual plan is to place each map by itself in a paper wrapper, of one or the other size, on the back margin of which is written its title and distinctive mark. They are then arranged in geographical or alphabetical order, in case-drawers made for the purpose, which we prefer to portfolios. Folded maps in covers, and maps on rollers, should in most cases be preserved as they are, and be arranged by themselves. We would recommend a separate catalog for maps and atlases, indexing each map of the atlases.

Engravings

Where there is a large number of engravings it is advisable to have a separate room for their accommodation. They will naturally divide into distinct groups, which will re-

quire different treatment, suited to their character and size. Portraits will have one order of arrangement; views will have another; works of certain engravers and artists will need to be kept together; and other groups will be necessary according to the size of the collection.

Strong flat pasteboard boxes are excellent for engravings of medium and small size. Where portfolios are used for large engravings, separate wrappers of stiff paper will be found a good protection. Many of the engraved portraits in the Emmet collection, belonging to the New York Public Library, are bound together in volumes, according to their sizes, and in alphabetical order. It is a good plan to catalog all prints and drawings by themselves.

Collections of books that have been brought together for the purpose of illustrating the work of some particular engraver, like Hollar, Vertue, Bewick and Cruikshank, or our own Anderson and Darley, should be kept intact and in a place by themselves, as far as possible.

Annotated Books

Books which are made valuable by the autographs or manuscript annotations of famous persons, or even by their bookplates, should be given a place of their own, if it is desired to have them treated with care. We have put books of this kind in our manuscript department.

Extra Illustrated Books

Another class requiring special treatment consists of books that have been extended beyond their original form by the insertion of extraneous matter in the shape of autograph letters, portraits, views and other engravings. This class we have also placed in the manuscript department.

DOCUMENTS—NATIONAL AND STATE

Members of the library profession who have gained, step by step, degrees of culture by means of the several McGuffy readers, will no doubt recall a group of verses bearing the title *Harry and the Guide-Post,* in which a boy, walking by night, mistakes a guide-post for a spectre. Reflecting upon the more forbidding and somber documents of the nation has brought this moral tale to mind,—not that documents are in the least ghostly, but alarming they may seem unless, like Harry, we walk boldly up to them and discover what human creatures they really are, always informing, sometimes delightful in text or illustration.

PUBLIC DOCUMENTS

Considerable distinction was accorded so-called public documents in the first issue of *The Library Journal,* September 30, 1876, when Dr. Melvil Dewey stressed their importance.

A sketch of Dr. Dewey will be found in the initial volume of *Classics of American Librarianship, The Relationship Between the Library and the Public Schools.*

As a general rule, the public documents have been a despised class of books. Especially has this been true in our smaller libraries, which have hardly yet learned to appreciate them Till within a comparatively few years they were hardly preserved at all. In 1848 it was said of the Vermont State publications, "So little regard has been had to the preservation of our most important documents that no one of the public libraries of this State (not even our State library) contains a complete set of the published laws and journals of our legislature." At the present time the case is much improved, but yet—there is a chance for still greater advances. A few United States documents are regarded as valuable. Specialists have learned that they contain much which is of the utmost importance to them, and which they can obtain nowhere else. The reports of the Patent Office and of scientific men attached to the various exploring expeditions are perhaps the most prominent illustrations. Yet so many of these latter are hidden away in entirely unexpected places, sometimes in the report of one government officer and again in that of another, that without some clue to guide us through this labyrinth we are entirely lost.

The first great need, then, is some full index, brought up and kept up to date—an index of reports and also one of subjects treated of in the reports, the fuller the better. At present there is no such thing. We would not ignore the work which the Boston Public Library has done and given to the public. But its printed index is now a dozen years old, and though its written catalogue may be kept up, that is small consola-

tion to others who have no access to it. There are also indices published by the government of some portions of the United States documents—*e. g.,* the executive documents of the House of Representatives—but they are poorly compiled and of very little value. Of the Massachusetts documents there is no general index, and I presume none for those of the other states. Thus it is still true that we have no such catalogue as we need.

A further cause of the contempt with which public documents are regarded is the careless lavishness with which they are scattered about the country. There seems to be no desire to send them to those who are interested in them and will use them, but they are cast indiscriminately abroad. As a result they are thrown into the paper-basket, or used for scrap-books, or something else equally important. This waste is perhaps not so common now as in former years, but still it is sufficient to urge upon us some better disposal of them. The report of the Commissioner of Education for 1872 mentions about forty libraries having over 25,000 volumes apiece. This number must be quite largely increased now; perhaps, for lack of more definite information, we may call it one hundred. If, now, all the states of the Union would supply each of these hundred libraries with copies of their state publications, it might be of as great service in spreading information in regard to the states as the elaborate preparations of some of them at the Centennial Exhibition. It certainly would not be very expensive—the mere cost of paper, press-work and binding. If, in addition, the United States Government would institute, or rather *extend,* its system of exchanges with foreign countries so as to supply these one hundred libraries in all parts of the land with a copy of the government publications of the principal nations of Europe, we would gain valuable books and make them reasonably accessible to large numbers of people. There must be many libraries abroad which would desire our publications in return, and this would give to those countries better and more reliable information concerning our own land, which they so often fail to appreciate.

This system of exchanges is, of course, nothing new. Its many advantages and great simplicity have been urged long since by M. Alexandre Vattemare, and it was, at least partially, carried into effect. I urge it here, at the beginning of our

new enterprise, as something in which all librarians should be interested, hoping to stir up renewed discussion and *action* upon the subject. The two great needs of our libraries in regard to public documents are larger, fuller and better indices and an improved system of exchange.

OUTLINE FOR A WORKING COLLECTION OF PUBLIC DOCUMENTS AND AIDS TO ITS USE

It seems desirable to include in a volume, devoted chiefly to research activities of the library, a practical and thorough explanation of documents which form the basis of every great reference collection. The author of the present article, William L. Post, was connected with the Government Printing Office for seventeen years, during three years serving as Superintendent of Documents and rendering to the libraries of the country marked service in the distribution of these documents. At the general conference of the American Library Association, in 1909, the National Association of State Libraries and the Government Documents Section of the American Library Association passed resolutions expressing their appreciation of his great accomplishments.

Much has been written and said about the great mass of information contained in a collection of United States public documents. Glowing word pictures have been painted of their use, or more generally of their abuse; and so vivid have been these accounts that the average librarian has shuddered at the thought of being some day compelled to resurrect the government publications in the basement or attic.

Now all this is but a foolish travesty, perpetrated by unwise and uninformed enthusiasts, to the detriment rather than the benefit of the use of these valuable publications.

Let us logically approach the subject from a basis of the viewpoint of a searcher after knowledge, rather than that of an inflated egotist whose views of all things are colored by the sense of his own importance and the finality of his opinions.

In the consideration of the subject of public documents in the relation to reference work, two questions naturally arise—What should a collection of government publications include,

and what bibliographic aids are at hand to make such a collection of service?

Although it will be freely admitted that government publications are a valuable asset in any library large enough and rich enough to take proper care of them, it is safe to say that no other class of valuable literature is so little appreciated or used. This is not a surprising condition when one considers the meager means at hand to aid in their study, and the enormous quantity of unrelated material included in a collection of these governmental papers.

Congress, the Executive Departments and the numerous independent bureaus, boards and commissions print and reprint, and the output is as varied as it is extensive.

With no systematic method of publication, and in most instances without any oversight whatever, the whims of personal authors are humored to a degree which gives rise, in the publications of even a single department, to many grave questions for the consideration of the librarian and the cataloger.

Uniformity is an unknown term in most of the publishing offices of the Government, the few exceptions serving merely to emphasize the great need of an editorial department, composed of experienced editors and persons trained in library science, to be charged with the duty of preserving system in all governmental issues.

The Five Series

A collection of United States Government publications naturally divides into five classes:

1. The original prints of the documents and reports of the first fourteen Congresses, the Continental Congress papers, and the various compilations of proceedings, documents, etc., termed "Early Congress Papers."

2. The numbered Congressional documents and reports from the beginning of the 15th Congress, composing the "Congressional series" or "Sheep set," as it is more familiarly called, on account of its sheep-skin binding.

3. The "Departmental series," composed of the publications of the various executive departments, independent offices, boards and commissions.

4. The "Proceedings of Congress."

5. The unnumbered publications of the Congressional committees, etc., termed "Miscellaneous Publications of Congress."

Part 1. Outline of A Collection of U. S. Public Documents

1. early congress papers

The documents and journals of the Colonial and Revolutionary periods do not properly come within the scope of the U. S. government publication.

The whole ground of these pre-governmental issues has been thoroughly covered by the late Paul Leicester Ford, in his valuable work entitled, *Material for a bibliography of the Continental Congress,* and later by Mr. Herbert Friedenwald in his paper presented to the American Historical Association, and printed in its annual report for 1896, entitled *The Journals and papers of the Continental Congress.* Appended to this paper is an exhaustive bibliography of the Journals of the Congress.

The lack of information as to the Congressional documents, and reports of the prints of the first fourteen Congresses, while greatly to be deplored, is easily accounted for. The printing during the very early Congresses was done without any general provision of law. The discretion in this matter was reposed in the Secretary of the Senate and the Clerk of the House of Representatives, and the limited editions thus ordered account for the scarcity of the original prints. Even as early as 1829, when an attempt was made to reprint the more important of these early papers, it was reported to Representative Barringer, by the Clerk of the House, that from 1793 to 1803 not a vestige of manuscript, and only a scattered few printed copies, were extant. (See Congressional Debates, v. 5, p. 376).

The destruction of the Capitol in 1814 cost most of the remaining surplus of all the documents, and heightened the interest in a reprint of them in a more accessible form. Year after year attempts were made to accomplish this end, but political feuds and personal animosities created much dissension and spirited debate, and it was not until March 2, 1831, that the following bill was presented for the third reading and passed:

Be it enacted etc., That the Clerk of the House of Representatives hereby is authorized and directed to subscribe for 750 copies of the compilation of the Congressional documents proposed to be made by Gales and Seaton; Provided, That

the documents shall be selected under the direction of the Secretary of the Senate and the Clerk of the House; and provided also, That the price paid for the printing of copies shall be at the rate not exceeding that of the price paid to the printer of Congress for printing the documents of the two Houses.

In a speech on that date, in reply to a scathing opposing tirade on the part of Mr. Jesse Speight, of North Carolina, Mr. William Drayton, of South Carolina, said:

The documents referred to comprehend those state papers of the Executive and its departments, and those reports of both branches of Congress, which are of peculiar importance, from their throwing light upon the principles of the interior and exterior policy of our Government during the long interval which elapsed from the adoption of the Federal Constitution to the year 1813. The contents of these papers are known to but few. Of many of them there are but two or three copies now extant, and others of them are only to be found in manuscript in the possession of a small number of persons. Surely the records of the United States, upon subjects which ought to be familiar to every senator and representative, should be easily attainable, and yet the reverse is notoriously the fact.

The "American State Papers," in 38 volumes, which were the outcome of this and subsequent legislation, are doubtless among the most valuable public documents ever provided for by Congress.

This compilation can be found in nearly all the large libraries, and when it is realized that it contains reprints of the more important documents of all classes from 1789 to 1833, and of some classes up to 1838, also many others which had never before been printed; when their convenient form, excellent execution and liberal indexing are taken into account, the questions of "how many" and "what were" the papers of the earlier Congresses will no longer disturb the minds of the public in general; though no compilation or reprint can ever take the place of or lessen the interest in the original prints in the eyes of librarians and bibliographers.

The various collections examined by me in the preparation of a list of the Papers of the first 14 Congresses which will form a part of the third edition of the Checklist of U. S. Public Documents now being prepared in the Public Documents Office, were all found to be far from complete, and the scarcity of the original prints makes this portion of a col-

lection something to be read of rather than wrestled with by all but a favored few librarians.

2. THE CONGRESSIONAL SERIES

Even a casual glance at the imposing line of sheep bound volumes, which constitute a complete collection of this great series, causes one to wonder what Congress does to necessitate such extensive documentary records; but when it is learned that the first 20 Congresses issued not to exceed 300 volumes altogether, while the 59th Congress alone issued fully that number, the wonderment doubtless increases, and leads naturally to a little investigation, and the disclosure of a condition of affairs unequalled for its peculiarities.

The series of "documents" is found to include not only annual reports provided by law to be laid before Congress, and those specially called for from the various Executive departments and independent bureaus, but also reports of individuals on more or less interesting subjects, not, however, connected in any way with current legislation, and often entirely foreign to any public question, as, for instance, the "Jefferson Bible," the only documented book in the series not bound in sheepskin.

The series of "reports" is found to be more uniform, containing only the reports of the various standing and special committees on the matters referred to them; no distinction, however, being made between those of a private and those of a public character, so that important reports are often buried amid a mass of useless matter. Beginning with the 58th Congress, 3d session, the reports on private bills, simple and concurrent resolutions are omitted from the volumes into which their numbering would naturally bring them, and are bound only for the distributing officers and librarians of Congress in lettered volumes. This form of economy in printing is an impediment rather than an expedient, for it breaks the consecutive numbering, greatly interferes with the indexing, and creates a new set of volumes which will be difficult to classify.

It is doubtful if anyone could master the notation of the documents composing this series, as the absurd and unintelligible combinations of figures are not only bewildering but meaningless. To assign a number to a document, and then

separate that number into parts, and the several parts into volumes, which in turn have parts whose parts are volumed, constructs a notation so absurd as to be amusing. Yet this is exactly what is done in many instances, and sometimes six or seven combinations are necessary to give the full notation.

What could and should be done is to adopt a scheme of numbering which would not only do away with all duplication, but bring together in separate series the documents transmitted from a Department, or the reports of a Committee, thus collating to a degree this mass of unrelated material and making it possible to eliminate from the permanently bound sets all unimportant and ephemeral material without disturbing the sequence of numbers or volumes.

A step has been taken in the right direction by creating a "library edition" of these congressional publications, which omits all annuals and serial publications for the numbered series, and includes only those documents and reports of which Congress, strictly speaking, is the author. The change makes possible the prompt delivery of the more important publications, and avoids duplication. The fact that for Congressional use they are still included in the numbered series need not bother the librarian, as the future issues of the Document Indexes are to be so constructed as to indicate which are and which are not distributed to them as Congressional documents.

The adoption of the new buckram binding in place of sheepskin is another important achievement, and the old "sheep set" is practically destroyed, although the serial number arrangement may easily be retained by any library which prefers so to shelve its books.

Reference aids in studying and classifying the Congressional series

1. Checklist of public documents, containing debates and proceedings of Congress from the 1st to the 53d Congress, etc., 2d edition. Issued by F. A. Crandall, Superintendent of Documents, 1895. (Out of print.)

2. Tables of and annotated index to the Congressional series of United States public documents; compiled by William L. Post, Superintendent of Documents, 1902. (Out of print.)

3. Advance sheets class, 53d Congress; issued Jan. 12, 1909. (Supplement to the Tables and Index.)

4. Document indexes, schedules of volumes in each session of Congress, with their serial numbers for a portion of the time.

3. DEPARTMENTAL PUBLICATIONS

After the Congressional documents and reports are disposed of, the next great step, and the hardest step, is logically to list, classify and describe those issues of the Executive departments and independent publishing offices, of which there are many thousands. These departmental issues are many of them scarce; many more are useless; and some are unattainable from any source, references to them being all that remains. It will never be known just what constitutes a complete file of the departmental issues, but of the more important a copy is now preserved in the Public Documents Library, and they will some day be brought to the attention of investigators by proper listing and indexing. Many are of great historical value, and contain records of events found in no other form.

The nine Executive departments, with their aggregate of several hundred bureaus, many of which are again subdivided into numerous offices, divisions and sections, and all issuing publications, annually, monthly and even daily, on subjects ranging from agriculture to astronomy, provide publications sought for by the scientist and scholar because of their valuable contents, and avoided by the library assistant, because of the difficulty of applying any rules to their cataloging and classification.

There are no guides to this portion of a collection. The Agriculture Department publications can be reliably checked by the List of publications of the Agriculture Department, 1862-1902, with analytical index, compiled by William Leander Post, Superintendent of Documents, 1904; and other publishing offices may be checked by the Advance Sheets to the 3d edition of the Checklist of U. S. Public Documents, now being issued by the Public Documents Office. From these lists also the classification as used by the Superintendent of Documents may be obtained, and its use by the larger libraries, at least, is suggested.

4. PROCEEDINGS OF CONGRESS

This series, possibly the most valuable from a historic point of view of all the published or adopted publications of the Government, presents in the volumes of a complete set all the authorized accounts of the debates and proceedings in both the Senate and House of Representatives from their organization to the present time.

Up to the close of the first session of the 18th Congress, none but the newspaper accounts of the doings of Congress were recorded, and these accounts were so biased and partisan in their tendency that it is doubtful if any of them can be considered authentic. The Journals were the only official records, and were deemed sufficient. Many and heated were the debates regarding the advisability of providing the people in general with authorized accounts of the Congressional proceedings, but no influence could be brought to bear to defeat so powerful an antagonist as the press, which, of course, fought bitterly for so lucrative a perquisite.

Thomas Lloyd, a New York publisher, at the "First session of the House of Representatives of the United States" took down in shorthand and printed full reports of the proceedings of that body. (Congressional Register; or history of the proceedings and debates of the first House of Representatives of the United States of America, namely . . . containing an impartial account of the most interesting speeches and notions, and accurate copies of remarkable papers laid before and offered to the House. Taken in shorthand by Thomas Lloyd. New York: Printed by Hodge, Allen and Campbell, and for T. Lloyd, the proprietors, MDCCLXXXIX. 2 volumes.) It is to be regretted that encouragement was not given for the continuation of this pioneer effort. While lacking in many ways, it had the advantage of being contemporaneous with the events which it recorded.

At the 2d session of the 4th Congress, when Lloyd and Thomas Carpenter petitioned Congress to subscribe to their respective reports, a motion to expend $1600 for that purpose "was passed in the negative" (to use a phrase characteristic of that time), on the ground of "unnecessary extravagance" and "lack of precedent." The expenditure for the same purpose for a single session of Congress aggregates many times that amount for printing and binding alone, to say nothing of the cost of reporting, transcribing and editing.

As early as the 15th Congress Gales and Seaton petitioned Congress for aid in publishing the "Annals of Congress," a series of volumes compiled from the stenographic notes of Joseph Gales, Sr., who reported the Congressional proceedings for the *Independent Gazetteer* of Philadelphia, of which he was the editor up to 1799; a paper later removed to Washington, D.C., with its name changed to *National Intelligencer,* with Joseph Gales, Jr. first as assistant editor and then as sole proprietor. It was not, however, until 1849 that Congressional aid was extended to this worthy enterprise, when provision was made for the purchase of a sufficient number of sets to insure its completion.

This series does not contain full reports of the proceedings, but gives sketches of the more important debates and a few speeches, covering the period from March 4, 1789, to May 27, 1824, 1st Congress, 1st session, to 18th Congress, 1st session.

Twenty-five years prior to the purchase of these "Annals" at the 2d session of the 18th Congress, the "Register of Debates" had been begun by Gales and Seaton, though it was not until several years later, at the 2d session of the 19th Congress, that they received any official recognition. This publication was continued until the close of the 25th Congress, 1st session, Oct. 16, 1837. The work is well bound, printed on good paper in double column pages, numbering 14 volumes in 29 books.

At the commencement of the 23d Congress Messrs. Blair and Rives began the publication of a pamphlet entitled "The Congressional Globe," which later took the place of the "Register," and the 109 volumes in a complete set comprises the best and only official record from its commencement to the close of the 42d Congress, March 3, 1873.

Two other attempts to record and publish the proceedings of Congress were made, one by Duff Green for the 23d Congress, 1st session, which received no encouragement from Congress, and the other by James A. Houston for the Senate of the 30th Congress, 1st session, an order for which was given by the body, a contract they were compelled to pay a bonus to abrogate at the close of the first session on account of the unsatisfactory character of the work.

To John Sherman belongs the distinction of being the first person recorded as advocating the purchase of the Globe plant and the continuation of the publication of the debates and

proceedings under the exclusive supervision of Congress. He proposed the amendment to the legislative appropriation act of July 20, 1868, which resulted in the present method of recording and publishing in the *Congressional Record*.

The *Record* is still issued in the same form in which it was begun at the commencement of the 43d Congress in 1873.

A neat and complete list of the volumes comprised in a complete set of the Proceedings of Congress has just been issued by the Superintendent of Documents, being Free List no. 2. It will form a reliable checklist for the use of librarians.

5. MISCELLANEOUS PUBLICATIONS OF CONGRESS

The miscellaneous unnumbered publications which are issued by the direct authority of Congress without the intervention of any executive office or officer, are very miscellaneous indeed. The most important among those thus issued in past years are the collected papers of Madison, 3 volumes, 1840; of Hamilton, 7 volumes, 1850-51; and of Jefferson, 9 volumes, 1853-54; Hickey's Constitution, of which many editions were issued; Lanman's Dictionary of Congress, also issued in several editions; Force's American archives, 9 volumes; Blair's Diplomatic correspondence, 1783-89, 7 volumes; a reprint of the early Finance reports, 7 volumes; Schoolcraft's History of the Indian tribes, 6 volumes. Among works of private publishers bought by Congress and distributed in like manner, were: Life and works of John Adams, 10 volumes; Elliott's Debates on the Federal Constitution, 5 volumes; Public land laws, 2 volumes; Mayo's Pension laws, 1 volume; Elliott's Diplomatic code, 2 volumes. These are but samples from a very long list which it would be useless to recite here, as all are more or less familiar with their names; although being important, their edition is usually limited, and the distribution therefore restricted. It is a sad fact that of the most useless publications the largest editions are printed. It is not now so much the fashion as it once was for Congress to make itself the purchaser and publisher of miscellaneous volunteer publications. This is more and more left to the Executive Departments, by which, it is reasonable to suppose, such compilations may be more authoritatively and more minutely supervised. Yet there have been recent instances of the Congressional publications of such compilations without the assent of the executive offices most

directly interested. Among such publications are the Indian treaties of 1873, not recognized as authentic by the Indian Office; Treaties in force, 1899, not approved by the State Department; and Historical register and dictionary of the United States Army, 1789-1903, upon the title page of which the War Department placed a "Note," which states: "This is the unofficial work of a private compiler, purchased and published by direction of Congress."

There are, however, several important series in this class of governmental literature: The manuals of each House of Congress, containing their rules, precedents, etc.; the confidential documents of the Senate; Congressional bills which are drafts of proposals which are desired to have enacted into law; publications of proceedings and documents presented by special Commissions and Boards of investigation; hearings before Committees of Congress on pending questions; trials of contested election cases before Committees of Congress; memorial addresses on the lives and character of many prominent men who have served also in one of the legislative bodies; speeches almost innumerable, which are also to be found in the bound volumes of proceedings.

Nothing has as yet been published which will aid the collector in the procuring or classifying of these publications. The fact that most of them are unobtainable, even in their current issues, may soothe the spirits of the impatient bibliophile who is laboring to complete his collection. When the checklist is complete this portion will reveal many surprises, and the attempt to secure the publications later will produce continuous disappointments.

Part II. A Bibliography of Bibliographic Aids

Doubtless a fond dream of all those who frequently consult the United States public documents is that some day provision will be made for the preparation of a complete catalog of these valuable papers; and there is evidence that even at a very early date this same necessity was fruitlessly discussed.

That these early discussions contemplated merely the listing of the "Congressional documents" is evident, and was at that time imperative, as not even the Departments themselves made collections of their own publications, nor could they tell with any assurance of accuracy what they had issued. Prac-

tically the same condition exists in this day of library development, for, with but few exceptions, the Executive departments or other government publishing offices, make no effort to preserve files of their current publications, or attempt to collect the earlier issues. The fact is that the library in the office of the Superintendent of Documents is the only one possessing a general collection of these miscellaneous publications, and this accounts for the checklist now being issued from that office being the first to include a comparatively full record of all U. S. Government publications.

The indexing of Government publications, that most important feature in making publications valuable as reference works, was almost entirely neglected at first. That of the Congressional documents and reports was done in the early days at long intervals and by people with differing ideas as to how the work could best be accomplished, so that the five indexes covering the period from the 1st to the 25th Congress, 1789-1839, present no systematic form nor accurate entry of the publications they purport to include, and in the earliest issues have been found absolutely useless as a means of identifying the publications.

A comprehensive plan of listing and indexing was first proposed by Thomas F. Gordon at the 3d session of the 25th Congress in 1839, and thereafter agitated for several sessions. It was never adopted, although many of his suggestions were appropriated in later indexes.

On June 12, 1874, Mr. A. R. Spofford, then Librarian of Congress, submitted to the Senate a memorandum "concerning a complete index to the documents and debates of Congress" (43d Cong., 1st sess., S. Mis. doc. 125, serial no. 1584). His plan was very extensive, including not only the indexing of the Congressional documents from 1789 to that date, but also all the volumes containing the records of the Proceedings of Congress,—Annals, Register and Globe; the American State papers; Wait's State papers; Statutes-at-Large; Journals of the Continental Congress; Force's American archives; Sparks' Diplomatic correspondence of the Revolution; Madison's report of the Debates in the Federal Convention (Madison papers); and Elliott's Debates in the state constitutional conventions, a total of 1600 volumes.

Perhaps Mr. Spofford could have evolved a usable index to this great mass of material on his "topical" plan suggested

in the report, but after some years of experience in the practical work of indexing at least some of these identical publications I am led to believe that such an index is not at all what is desired to unseal the veritable treatures which are buried in the public documents. A dictionary catalog is what is needed.

WORK OF THE DOCUMENT OFFICE

Congress could provide for no more useful and valuable publications than a thorough index to all of its published proceedings and a complete catalog of Government publications from the foundation of the Government, works of such magnitude as to require special legislation to insure their completion, and for which no checklists or indexes, however well constructed, can be considered satisfactory substitutes.

All that seems possible to accomplish without special Congressional aid is being done by the Superintendent of Documents. The Printing Act of Jan. 12, 1895, provided for the preparation of three publications by his office, the "Comprehensive index" or "Document catalogue," containing in dictionary arrangement entries for all the Congressional and Departmental publications issued during the period cataloged, the "Consolidated index" or "Document index," to take the places of the indexes to the volumes of the "Sheep set," and issued for each session of Congress, commencing with the 54th Congress, 1st session; and the "Monthly catalogue," begun in January, 1895, and issued periodically as its title indicates, including entries for all publications issued during the month covered.

With the preparation of these extensive and necessarily laborious publications the obligatory duty of the office ceases, but notwithstanding the small force and many other hindrances, every effort has been put forth to aid and interest the librarians and the public at large in Government publications.

What is now being done of a retrospective character is to list and index fully the publications of each of the Departments separately; providing in the tables or lists all the necessary bibliographic information, with copious notes, and, wherever necessary, a statement of the contents of a series or volume; the index supplying subject, author and often title references to every article or paper included in the volumes listed.

Two publications under this plan have been completed, viz., "Tables of, and annotated index to, the Congressional series of United States Public Documents, 1902" and "List of publica-

tions of the Agriculture Department, 1862-1902, with analytical index, 1904," both of which I personally compiled as models for future issues. The first of these comprises complete tables of the Congressional documents series, arranged by serial numbers, from the 15th to the 52d Congress, both inclusive, with an annotated index containing author and subject entries for all of the 98,875 documents included in the series for that period, except those of a private or unimportant character. When this great task was completed work was begun on the "Departmental series," taking each department by itself in the order in which it appears in the official library classification. The Agriculture list and index alone makes a book of 623 pages. It gives an absolutely complete list of the Department's publications, including 1902, with analytical references to all papers therein, however short or unimportant. This list is denominated "Department list no. 1," and is but a contribution toward the *Bibliography of United States public documents,* which will be compiled from such lists as soon as they are all issued and corrected.

It is expected that the other department lists will be compiled in accordance with the plan of the Agriculture list, and in elaboration of the lists given in the Checklist advance sheets, and will be made as full and accurate as research can make them; a task which, though well under way, will take some time for its accomplishment.

POORE'S PIONEER PUBLICATION

The Senate on March 24, 1881, passed a resolution calling on all the Executive Departments to communicate to it as full lists as possible of all books, reports, documents and pamphlets printed or published by them from 1789 to 1881.

In response the Interior Department sent in a list covering 76 pages, of which 55 were devoted to the circulars of the General Land Office, and the remainder to lists of annual reports and numbered series of various bureaus, with less than 100 entries for miscellaneous publications. The Attorney-General transmitted a 12 page list of the publications of his department, nearly all of which were Congressional documents; the Secretary of the Navy's list was 15 pages long, chiefly of the publications of the Navigation Bureau; and the War Department's list of 19 pages was equally deficient.

The Secretary of the Treasury stated in reply that "The records of this Department fail to give the information called for, as it is within a short time only that steps have been taken to preserve in consecutive order the various reports, documents, pamphlets, and circulars, etc., issued therefrom."

There is no evidence that the State and Post-office Departments made any reply whatever.

These lists, obtained to aid in the compilation of a catalog of Government publications provided for by act of Congress, July 27, 1882, and finally entrusted to the direction of Ben. Perley Poore, were all transmitted within fifteen months from the date of the call, and are not only unnecessarily deficient, but the titles are so abbreviated that it is almost impossible to identify the publications. Another fruitless effort to obtain lists of the department publications was made under date of July 30, 1898, when a dragnet letter was sent out by the Superintendent of Documents in the hope of obtaining full lists from 1881 to that date, but only a few responses were received and these added but little to the knowledge already possessed.

Of the 3,063 books, pamphlets and documents found and cataloged by Poore in his unwieldy and unreliable catalog issued in 1885, and covering the period from the continental times to 1881, the greater portion were Congressional documents. In fact, such a small percentage of undocumented or departmental publications were included as to make the title of his work *Descriptive catalog of Government publications,* a misnomer, as it is mainly a non-descriptive catalog of the numbered Congressional documents. It cost the Government over $60,000 for compilation alone; one dollar for every publication cataloged.

AMES'S COMPREHENSIVE INDEX

Dr. John G. Ames, in the preface of his continuation of the work of Poore (*Comprehensive index of the publications of the United States,* 1889-1893), declares that "nothing else would so greatly subserve the convenience of all public men, the libraries of the country, and all others who have occasion to consult the public documents" as a "carefully prepared and exhaustive index." Like its predecessor, this index also proved deficient as to "departmental documents," to say nothing of its lack of "comprehensiveness" and its hopeless originality in form.

THE FIRST CHECKLIST

In 1892, however, Dr. Ames contributed to the aid of the searcher for knowledge in the unillumined labyrinth of public documentology, a valuable *List of Congressional documents from the 15th to the 51st Congress, and of the Government publications containing debates and proceedings of Congress from the 1st to the 51st Congress, with miscellaneous lists of public documents, and historical and bibliographical notes; prepared by John G. Ames,* 1892." Eighty-three of its 120 pages are devoted to a list of Congressional documents arranged by Congress, session, series and volume, while the few remaining pages contain references to the "Proceedings of Congress" and an annotated list of the more important annual reports and a few of the miscellaneous publications of the various departments.

SECOND EDITION OF CHECKLIST

In 1895, soon after the establishment of the Office of Superintendent of Documents, the copy for a second edition of this list was generously turned over to it by Dr. Ames, and after considerable revision, with numerous additions, it was finally issued as *Checklist of public documents containing debates and proceedings of Congress from the 1st to the 53d Congress, together with miscellaneous lists of documents, and historical and bibliographical notes. Second edition, issued by F. A. Crandall,* 1895.

In this edition, besides the Congressional series and the proceedings of Congress, many new lists were included of miscellaneous publications. A note on the "Earlier Congresses" by John A. Hickcox was prefixed, and three appendixes were added, containing (1) A list of authors of the various Government explorations and surveys; (2) A list of Government catalogs; and (3) An index "showing where in the set of Congressional documents the more important executive and other reports may be found." These appendixes and additional lists were compiled by Miss Adelaide R. Hasse.

In the preface it is said: "That this work is a complete checklist of public documents is not by any means asserted; but it becomes nearer being so than any preceding publications; and the collection of material for a new and more complete edition will be at once begun and steadily continued. There is ap-

parently no reason why, with care and effort, a substantially complete list of the public documents of the United States from the foundation of the Government may not be compiled and published a year or two hence." The "collection of material" has been "steadily continued" ever since, and the advance sheets of the third edition of the Checklist is registering the result.

This second edition of the Checklist, compiled under conditions which made accuracy difficult and completeness impossible, proved of such value that the edition of 3000 copies was soon exhausted, and a reprint would have been made, were it not for the fact, already stated, that a plan of fully listing and indexing the publications of each department separately was adopted.

MISCELLANEOUS LISTS

Other lists of Government publications issued prior to the edition of the Checklist now being published are as follows:

Catalog of the United States Senate Library, prepared by E. T. Cressey, assistant librarian. 1895. 114 pp. (53d Cong., 3d sess., S. Mis. doc. 83, serial no. 3281.)

Important serial documents published by the Government and how to find them; prepared by Alonzo W. Church, librarian of the Senate, and James M. Baker, assistant librarian. 1897. 91 pp. (54th Cong., 2d sess., S. Doc. 103, serial no. 3470.)

Finding list of important serial documents published by the Government in the Library of the United States Senate; prepared by James M. Baker. 1901. 281 pp. (56th Cong., 2d sess., S. Doc. 238, serial no. 4043.)

Catalog of the Library of the United States Senate; prepared by Clifford Warden. 1901. 235 pp.

By comparing these lists it will be found that they bear out little individuality of merit, all covering the same ground, and doing this in almost the same manner. Mistakes made in one are perpetuated in all, showing lack of investigation and verification on the part of the various compilers. These efforts are useful, however, in proving two things, namely, that a checklist must be made from a careful examination of the publications to be listed, and that a more systematic form of entry, and a simpler method of reference must be devised before it can be of use to those who are not experts on the confusing question of public documents. The merits claimed for the new list cover these points, and it is hoped that it will be found to

be improved in comprehensiveness, accuracy and facility of reference.

THE THIRD EDITION

The publication in the preface to Department List no. 1, the Agriculture list, of a description of my scheme of classification for United States Public Documents, called forth so many inquiries from libraries as to the other department lists and classifications, that, as the work on them was still far from complete, it was thought best to print, without further delay in advance sheet form, this large store of accumulated information with the hope that in conjunction with the complete classification for Government publications, which would then eventually be finished, it would arouse new interest as well as aid in the study and accumulation of public documents.

This Checklist, upon which the Superintendent of Documents' Office is now engaged, and of which advance sheets are being issued, will contain not only full lists of publications of each department and independent bureau, office, commission and board, so far as known, but also a reprint of the Congressional tables with additions to date, and a more elaborate index containing entries for the more important executive and other reports issued as Congressional documents, alphabetically arranged with an author, subject or title list of miscellaneous publications issued by the Departments, etc., and references to the various publishing offices represented, as well as to the series listed.

It should be borne in mind that this work is based on the official library classification in use in the Public Documents office; that the tables therein given will represent a reprint of its shelflist cards, and that, with but few exceptions, entry will be made only for publications found in that library. It cannot, therefore, be claimed that it will list all the publications of the Government, except in the cases of the Agriculture Department, Fish Commission, Board on Geographic Names, Government Printing Office, Department of Labor, National Academy of Sciences and National Home for Disabled Volunteer Soldiers, all of which are thought to be complete, but that it will be by far the most extensive list of such publications ever issued is unhesitatingly asserted.

There is no doubt but that this plan of Checklist and departmental lists, if carried out, will present satisfactory sub-

stitutes for all former lists of Government publications. The advance sheets of the Checklist are something over one-third issued, and one Department list has been published. Experience, coupled with a finer collection of the publications, will make the issue of a reference work of superior value possible, and it is to be hoped that upon its completion, authority may be obtained to issue supplements to keep it corrected up to date, and also for the preparation of a dictionary catalog of the entire collection, compiled on the lines and coming down to the date of the present Document catalog.

CONCLUSION

And now that we know the scope and have been introduced to the various sources of information obtainable on the subject of a public documents collection, what conclusions can we draw as to their value?

As to the collection itself, a large volume might be written describing its many peculiarities and intimately detailing its ramifications. But such a task must be left to the discerning librarian who some time in the future may acquire sufficient knowledge, not now possessed by anyone, to compile a comprehensive handbook on the subject. The pioneer efforts have taught us what not to do; the present attempts at listing and classifying are clearing the way for a broader view and a more lasting record of the subject; and our knowledge thus obtained will be the foundation upon which a catalog of the U. S. Public Documents can be started; but to-day there is not sufficient information in hand to warrant more elaborate publications than those which the Public Documents Office is issuing. Public document experts can be counted on one hand with some fingers to spare. The field is a wide one and is open to all who delight in hard work of a pioneer character, and who are willing to take as their reward the satisfaction of knowing they have accomplished something for the public good.

The laurels are few in this field of endeavor, but if consecrated efforts are devoted to a mastery of the subject, and the attempts of the neophyte to enlighten are successfully discouraged, the future of public documents as useful reference works, and their permanent place in the library, are assured.

THE VEXED QUESTION OF PUBLIC DOCUMENTS

Miss Adelaide Hasse remains the greatest authority upon government documents. She has systematized, catalogued and explained these documents for an otherwise bewildered public and profession. The article which follows is a report of her address, delivered at the Western Library Meeting, Madison, Wisconsin, August 28, 1902.

Adelaide Rosalie Hasse was assistant librarian of the Los Angeles Public Library, from 1889 to 1895; librarian of the Office of the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, from 1895 to 1897, and librarian of the Document Department of the New York Public Library, 1897 to 1918. During 1918 and 1919 she was occupied with research work for the War Labor Policies Board and during the following three years in organizing the war records of the War Industries Board. Since 1923 she has been bibliographer for the Institute of Economics in Washington. Miss Hasse for a time, November, 1920 to January, 1923, edited the periodical *Special Libraries,* and she is widely known as the author of the *Index of Economic Material in Documents of the States of the United States.*

The attitude of the average librarian to-day toward documents is that of the paleontologist toward structural zoology before the study of constructive anatomy had been formulated. The peculiarity of documents, as books, is their relation one to another. When we lose sight of this, and hold in one hand only a minute fragment of a complex whole, is it to be wondered at that we encounter puzzling obstacles?

There are then two alternatives for the librarian facing the question of public documents: either he must become a student

of the constructive anatomy of civic administration, or he must be content to confine his use of documents, as fragments, to an exhibition of them, together with other specimens of literature on his cabinet shelves. Perhaps if, when speaking of public documents, we did not lose sight so absolutely of the fact that documents are but an expression of government, government in the abstract (not only of the United States government) we might be in a position more readily to appreciate their significance. If we but remembered that organized governments such as ours is to-day have existed since 1789, and that the history of unorganized governments follows closely the inception of the family as a unit of society, and that so soon thereafter as the art of preserving records by graphic means was invented public documents came into existence, we would have an inkling of the immensity of the study of public documents. A royal Assyrian proclamation, inscribed on stone, is a public document; a Chinese ordinance passed thousands of years ago, providing for the establishment of the vast system of public roads of that country, is a public document; a Phœnician wax tablet containing a tariff schedule is a public document; Egyptian hieroglyphics decorating the walls of a tomb and representing a regal decree make, in effect, a public document.

Public documents exist wherever civic organization has taken place in a civilization having invented the art of graphic expression. As in the nomenclature of other social developments so we have in that of public documents a reminder of their evolution. Notable are the Pipe Rolls of Great Britain, about the true origin of which there is a division of opinion, it being maintained on the one hand that these early finance reports were so called because the accounts on rolls, like a pipe or conduit, encompassed the income and outgo of the country's wealth; and on the other hand it is maintained that they received the name because the accounts were inscribed on huge skins and were rolled up when not in use, representing in contour a pipe. In France the repository of government archives is to-day called Trésor des Charts, which was the name the old kings who lived in the saddle gave to the name of the coffer holding the royal seal and official parchments, and which they carried about with them from battle to battle.

Without going beyond the era of organic administration beginning in 1789, the complexity of the construction of the

study of public documents may be illustrated by the fact that there are in existence to-day 35 federal publishing bodies other than that of the United States, and that there are 743 local publishing bodies other than the half hundred American commonwealths, and that there are 153 colonial publishing bodies other than the three American colonies, and of municipal publishing bodies the name is legion. The extent of the study may be further illustrated by the statement that each one of these 36 federal bodies and 743 local bodies operates upon practically the same political basis. They are all agreed as to an organic act, which they publish and call a constitution, the result of the study of which is called constitutional history; they all promulgate certain decisions for the public welfare which they call laws, the result of the study of which is called the study of comparative legislation; they are all conducted by a representative body, the result of the study of whose deliberations is called parliamentary history; to administer the provisions of the representative body, each of these 36 federal, 793 local and 156 colonial governments has instituted a relatively similar system of executive offices, the result of the study of which is called comparative administrative law.

A collection of public documents may then be either legal, and contain only the laws of one or more governments; or it may be parliamentary, and contain only the parliamentary proceedings of one or more governments; or it may be administrative, and contain only the executive reports of the administrative departments of one or more governments. An administrative collection again may be further subdivided, for it may be the purpose of its promoters to collect particularly the literature on the economic interests of the civic administration, or on the prudential interests, or on the protective interests. So there may be libraries which are strong in financial and commercial reports of one or more governments, libraries which are strong in insurance reports, education reports, reports on penal institutions of one or more governments, or libraries which are strong in reports on the preservation of public health, the improvement of public comfort, by the maintenance of good roads, good lighting, perfect sanitation, the establishment of parks, etc., of one or more governments. Looking then at the question of public documents as it is related to the work of the American librarian, I may be permitted here to make

again the statement that we will continue to experience difficulty in the handling of these documents so long as our conception of their relation to government in general and the relation of any one document to the organization of the country publishing that document is not clear. It is not at all necessary, though it would be well, that we have an intimate knowledge of the intricacies of political administration; but a general understanding of the fundamental principles is necessary in order to handle documents satisfactorily.

The universal comment of librarians concerning documents is, "Here we have all this valuable material stowed away and no one can get at it. Every day brings us more. Of course, not knowing what it is, we must keep all that comes until we do find out what it is." And then the greatness and the glory of the country is expatiated upon, because it overwhelms a great and glorious people with a wealth of valuable literature. Of course, theoretically, it is very fine to know that our country is so generous in the distribution of valuable literature that there is not a school child in the land that cannot have a Smithsonian report so that it may write a composition on Indian mounds, etc. The idea of the provision for the diffusion of knowledge among its people by a government is very beautiful, but in this particular instance, viz.: the means by which this diffusion is brought about, there is quite another side to the question. Imagine a storehouse of books at the present moment more than twice as large as the Wisconsin Historical Society's library, and being augmented at the ratio of 500 per cent every six years, imagine such a collection broken up every year among 540 libraries, which have in the first place no voice whether to take or leave, in the second place no choice whatever in what to take or leave, and which in the third place are left to defray the entire expense of the preparation, storing and care of this unsolicited gift, and you have a general picture of a government depository. At the time of the 56th congressional session, the distribution to depository libraries equalled 527 volumes a year to a library, eating up on an average 96 feet of shelving. The larger proportion of depository libraries are libraries of between 10,000 and 25,000 volumes, a large per cent are libraries of under 5000 volumes. Has it ever occurred to a librarian of a library of say 2000 volumes, supported by the town say at $900 or $1000 a year, to question

the propriety of asking the town to pay storage and service for material practically useless to that library? Has the solution never suggested itself to you? Have you never thought that if you were given the option of selection, the effect desired might be attained with far greater satisfaction? Have you ever questioned the reason of the present system of maintaining federal warehouses at local expense? Is the compensation for you adequate? All these are pertinent questions to the librarian and they touch the very heart and core of the so-called "vexed question."

To keep alive the present system of distribution the American government maintains to-day the largest printing plant in the world, costing $5,300,000 a year, the salaries alone amounting to $3,750,000. The annual report of the Secretary of Agriculture for 1900 alone cost $148,000; 1600 people were employed at a total amount of $91,200; 500,000 copies were printed, requiring 3700 reams of 100-lb. book paper 24 x 38 inches; 590,000 lbs. of 48-lb. machine finish paper, 24 x 38 inches; 20 bbls. of flour, 3500 lbs. of glue and 700 pkgs. of gold leaf, costing $4000.*

The point is, does this enormous amount of money expended on the part of the federal government, together with the expenditure for maintenance on the part of the local warehouses, represent in all cases an expenditure wisely directed? You are not interested in documents, you are interested in a quantity of material foisted upon you, which is in your way, which you hesitate to return to its donor, about the unquenchable source of which you are very much in the dark, and it is your complacency in permitting yourself to remain in the dark on this subject that has now resulted in the "vexed question of public documents." It is not the large libraries, with facilities, who are perplexed by the problem, but it is the small library, with limited means, to whom this indiscriminate continuous donation is an embarrassment. The incongruity of a system that will give to a library of 300,000 volumes the same service that it gives to a library of 3000 volumes, is too evident to be commented upon. There is no relief for you unless you take the initiative step to bring about a change in the law which provides for uniform distribution based upon proportional representation. So long as you are content to rest under the operation of this law, so long will you continue to have with you

* Annual report of Public Printer, 1900.

the vexed question of public documents. There is no solution possible so long as the law as it stands to-day continues in operation. The service to libraries should be graded, suitable to the demands of the library, and should be based upon geographic relation. You observe I do not so much advocate retrenched distribution as rational distribution.

Second only to the method of distribution in causing annoyance to libraries is the method of "make-up." As you know, the government issues two editions of its publications, the congressional or sheep, and the department, or cloth edition. Both of these editions are on the list sent to depositories, and this duplication embarrasses you with the question of whether to keep both editions intact, and so maintain a duplicate set of little used material, or whether to keep only one, and if only one, which one? This is not a question which ought to come to you at all. In only the rarest of cases are you called upon to readjust a set of private publications to meet conveniences of shelving. Documents, if issued for use by librarians, should be issued in customary library editions, and should be held subject to the demand of a library. I have not decided in my own mind whether I would recommend the abstraction from the sheep set of all reports other than committee reports, memorials, petitions, etc., printing them in a bureau edition, and distributing them in this form to depositories, and reserving the collected committee and other reports from general distribution, or whether it were best to continue a congressional edition as it is made up to-day, and depositing this in eight or ten of the largest libraries over the country, and distributing only the department and bureau reports to libraries. As a rule it is not the department and bureau reports that are as much in demand in a library where documents are used at all, as it is the current committee reports upon questions being now discussed in Congress. These it is which the college library and the larger public libraries want as soon as they can get them, and these it is which are served to them at the largest possible interval of time.

It is then the present system of distribution and the present system of makeup which are the real causes of your difficulty in handling public documents. If you are seriously inconvenienced, and find that you are struggling under a burden unjustly imposed upon you, you have several alternatives. You

may ask to be relieved of all depository designation. In this case you would need to make application to your representative for all documents of which you want a copy, and you would stand a reasonably certain chance of getting as much as would be good for you; or, you might address a remonstrance against the imposition to your representative, asking him to refer it to the proper committee. It is possible that a number of such remonstrances might bring about a hearing on the question before the committee, and the determination of the distribution revert to the librarian. The Superintendent of Documents has at present no authority to issue documents to libraries generally on selection, and under the code you must take all or nothing. The matter of cataloging public documents, were the distribution and makeup simplified, would be attended with no more difficulty than is the cataloging of any corporation publication.

I do not want to give you the impression that I undervalue or underappreciate the public documents, for I do not. As a class of books, it is by far the most important in existence. Public documents are the record of the birth of history. All over the world for hundreds of years countries have been occupied in keeping these birth records, and a library of to-day having the means to collect a set of these birth records, would raise a monument more magnificent than any ever erected. Bancroft has very eloquently expressed himself on this subject when he says: "It is because God is visible in history that its office is the noblest except that of the poet. . . . To him and to him alone history yields in dignity; for she not only watches the great encounters of life, but recalls what had vanished, and partaking of a bliss like that of creating, restores it to animate being. . . . But history, as she reclines in the lap of eternity, sees the mind of humanity itself engaged in formative efforts, promulgating laws, organizing commonwealths, constructing sciences. . . . Of all pursuits that require analysis, history therefore stands first." * But a public document in general, as reflecting this conception of history, and public documents as seen only from the point of view of the incumbent of a United States government depository, are two very different points of view. The mere fact that among American

* Oration delivered at the semi-centennial celebration of the founding of the New York Historical Society, Nov. 20, 1854.

librarians the term "public documents" has come to signify only the publications of the United States federal government, is a commentary on the enormity of the incubus. For if you really regarded public documents as having the great value which you only assume they have, we would have a larger number of perfect files of state documents and of city documents. A public document does not lose historic value merely because it is not a public document of the United States federal government, and I venture to say that those public libraries, supported by public taxation, which have a file of the town documents, or even an attempt at a record of what constitutes such a file, is a very small number indeed.

If you are really interested in public documents, in your library, and in your community, there is no one piece of work you could do which would further these interests more than the beginning at once of the collection of a file of your town documents. There is in a city no more appropriate place than its public library for such a collection, and no more worthy work for a public librarian to have accomplished than to be able to bequeath to a city a record of its official life. City officers are as a general thing very negligent about preserving files of office reports, but by constant inquiry at the city offices, rummaging in second-hand shops, dunning newspaper offices, making friends with the old inhabitants, you will set to work mysterious forces which presently will materialize in the beginnings of a collection of city documents. There are public library trustees who are prone to frown at first upon such a suggestion, but who, when the collection has been enriched by a gift or two, may be detected, when touring a visiting trustee over the library, saying to him, "Yes, and this little book belonged to Mr. Blank, who has lived here thirty years and who found it among his father's books. No one else here seems to remember having seen a copy. It is an original print of the first town charter. You see we have had it specially bound. Our librarian is much interested in developing this collection."

There is another argument in favor of local collection. It has been said that the study of comparative constitutional history has been superseded by the study of comparative administration. The staple sources, outside of fugitive pamphlets, are the newspapers and the documents. Newspapers are now

being pretty generally preserved, and if a plea for documents can be made sufficiently convincing and repeated with sufficient frequency, it may be that librarians will in time come to realize the importance of collecting local material.

MAPS

Casual observation leads us to conclude that while the attention of one human being is captured by a picture two persons will pause in contemplation of a map.

Henry Drummond well perceived the beguiling power of a map, if we may judge from the preface to the first edition of a picturesque account of his travels, bearing the title "Tropical Africa." In it he says:

"It is the genial tax of literature upon travel that those who have explored the regions of the uncivilised, should open their bag of wonders before the world and celebrate their return to clothing in three or four volumes and a map. This exaction, in the nature of things, must shortly abolish itself; and meantime I would compound with any possible creditors by the reduced offer of three or four maps and a volume."

THE CARE OF MAPS

Francis Henry Parsons, at the time when he wrote the present article, was connected with the Naval Observatory at Washington, D.C. For twenty-five years he was in charge of the Smithsonian collection in the Library of Congress. From this position he was retired in January, 1925, at the age of seventy years. He died July 27 of the same year.

The problem of the care of maps, as Mr. Parsons warned, has not ended, but the year of 1895 gave little hint of the growing multiplicity of maps, their use in industry and daily life, or of an awakening to the decorative value of a map; it gave no intimation of the changing boundaries of nations, of the necessity for charting for a motor age, the radio or service in the air.

On page 107 of the Proceedings of the American Library Association, Lake Placid meeting, 1894, may be found the following sentence given as an axiom:

"Don't try to find a 'convenient form' of arrangement for maps: there is none."

Among all the librarians with whom I have conversed, this has been the universal experience. Experiments, many and varied, have resulted in but indifferent success.

Preparatory to arranging the large collection of maps then in my keeping, in 1891, I was directed by the superintendent of the U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey to visit a number of the large Eastern libraries, with the purpose of inspecting the various methods employed in the care of this most troublesome requisite of a large library. With only one exception I received but slight assistance from those to whom I applied. The answer to my inquiries was generally to this effect:

"Yes, we have some old maps, but they are not arranged. We have been waiting until—until—we can get at them"; or

"until we can decide what to do with them"; or "until we can complete our subject catalog," or something else, which was deemed of more pressing necessity—if not easier—than putting the maps in convenient order for consultation.

The one illuminating ray of brightness which I found in my efforts to penetrate the hazy region enveloping the "care of maps" emanated from that accomplished librarian and genial gentleman, Dr. Justin Winsor, of Harvard College Library. The day that I called upon him his custodian of maps was absent, and he himself very courteously took me to the map-room and explained the method there in use.

This is one of the largest as well as one of the finest collections I have ever seen, containing above 750 bound volumes and about 12,000 loose sheets, many of which are very rare. The early American maps are well represented, and are of great historical importance, especially to all who would write of American history. Unfortunately there is no printed catalog; although some day I hope to see one issued.

Dr. Winsor advised me to use the "Catalogue of charts, plans and maps in the British Museum Library," (2 vols., 4to, $33) as the best checklist in print; proudly adding, "Of nearly all the *American* maps mentioned in that list, we have copies, and in addition, from 20 to 25 per cent *not described there.*"

The U. S. Government has frequently consulted, and even borrowed from the Harvard collection; and I regret to add that its custodian still deplores the fact that several valuable maps bearing ms. notes, which were used by a former boundary commission, have never been returned. In this connection, and as my subject is the "care of maps," it is not inapposite to remark that the first essential principle to be observed can be expressed in three words—*Never loan them!*

In order to eliminate one source of trouble to the librarian, it may be well to dispose first of the ordinary "roller map," generally a large, varnished sheet, mounted on cloth, intended to be hung upon the wall, extended to its utmost. With but small pretensions to accuracy, it possesses to the real-estate agent and county magnate great value as an advertising medium.

In ordinary libraries maps of this class can as well remain upon their rollers, properly tied up in as compact cylindrical form as feasible, numbered, and suspended by one end from

hooks upon the wall, or from racks, made for the purpose, where, by observing a little care in their disposition, any number indicated by the catalog can be easily found. At least this has been my own experience. I should not recommend a plan I have seen employed, of utilizing the wall space of a stair-shaft for this purpose. It is unsightly and, like happiness, always just beyond reach. From an ethical standpoint, alone, this plan should be abandoned on account of its injurious effect upon the temper. The roller desired hangs temptingly just one step higher than you are, but when that step has been mounted it still dangles out of your reach.

The more carefully executed maps with which we have to deal, form a subject for graver consideration. Often minutely depicted, light becomes an essential requisite in using them, and as a minimum degree of handling is desirable, they certainly should not be stored in a dark, inaccessible corner—as too often happens. For their preservation they require a safe abiding place, and in order to avoid the objectionable carrying to and fro, I should earnestly recommend that this be placed near a well-lighted table, thus securing to the student all possible advantage, while guaranteeing long life to the maps themselves. On no account should they be rolled—even loosely—the process having proved detrimental in many ways; noticeably, in giving them a tendency to curl, which no subsequent pains or care can eradicate.

In extreme cases you may be obliged to fold some maps, as their sizes will range anywhere from that of a visting card to six feet (or more) square. They are constructed upon many materials, but usually upon paper, and if from any reason it prove to be either brittle or fragile, the map should be mounted upon strong paper or cloth—preferably the latter. The utmost care is required to guard against distorting the map, as a change in scale in one direction only will falsify it, and render it inaccurate. Paper, when moistened by paste, will stretch more easily with its grain than across it, and none but an expert who will give conscientious care to the manipulation should be entrusted with such an important process.

On small maps margins may be added with great advantage: not only in bringing them to a uniform size, but in supplying a space for ms. notes regarding the history of the map, its date, or information concerning other editions from the same

plate, not recorded on this particular print. Should the maps be very small indeed, yet depict the same localities, several can be mounted on one back. Some geographers recommend the use of neutral tinted papers for these margins, as serving to bring out the colors and delineations, while an expanse of white is often blinding.

After the division into classes and subject, the next and probably most important point for consideration will be a method of storing which will secure their preservation yet leave them accessible. This is the great problem confronting librarians, of which according to the opinion quoted at the head of this paper no satisfactory solution has been found. I can only describe some of the plans which have been adopted, stating their advantages and drawbacks, and adding, perhaps, notes of a few of the mechanical details which will aid in the use of the various systems.

For small collections the general plan is to keep them in drawers; while shelving, either with or without portfolios, seems preferable for large ones.

In their present form, the superiority of drawers for storage chiefly consists in affording protection from dust, but when weighed against inaccessibility, this may be considered an insufficient reason for their use. Drawers such as those used in the United States Patent Office for filing drawings recommend themselves to my judgment as subject to fewer objections than any I have seen. The body of them rests upon two supports which pull out with the movement of opening the drawer, and when clear of the case it pivots to any desired angle, so that the sheets can be turned for inspection. These drawers are very expensive, and I have never seen them exceed dimensions of about 22 x 28 inches.

For large maps drawers should never be over three inches in depth, nor would I advise making them more than 42 inches wide by 36 inches from front to back. The lightest wood obtainable should be used for their construction, held together with screws; for, when heavily laden and in constant use, they soon break away if depending upon dove-tailing, glue or nails. The front face should be hinged to let down, enabling one to glance readily over the distinguishing numbers on the edge of the sheets, in order to select the one desired without being obliged to consult each title. At the back the drawer should

have a top at least six inches wide, to protect the edges of the maps in opening and closing the drawer; a light guard used at the front is also of great service for the same purpose. Even drawers of this size, when filled with maps, will be found very heavy, and will require anti-friction devices, lubricated with soap. It may be well to add that drawers for a large collection of maps will entail a carpenter's bill of no inconsiderable dimensions.

The most economical plan of storage, both in the cost and room, is to have cases 36 inches deep, with partitions 42 inches apart, and on these cleats, between which the shelves will slide. This prevents the shelves from warping, and at the same time makes it possible to omit a shelf if it becomes desirable to double the height between any two of them. False bottoms of heavy binder's board greatly facilitate handling the maps. Don't let a mistaken desire for beauty nor any other reason lead you to permit "facers" being placed on the perpendicular divisions. Have the cleats fill the sides from shelf to shelf, otherwise the edges of the maps will suffer while running them in and out.

To all devices, within my cognizance, for covering the front of these cases there can be urged serious objections. Hinged fronts for each compartment are a nuisance; doors either entire or in sections are troublesome, and apt to injure the edges of the maps; sliding doors prove awkward and inclined to stick; while even the blind doors, made like the sliding tops of office desks, and wound around a roller worked with a spring, have been tried at the Hydrographic Office without much success. The roller and its machinery occupy space at the top which could be utilized for shelves, and, like the ordinary self-rolling window-shade, it is continually getting out of order. For myself, I prefer cases without fronts, believing that in rooms of moderate size, with bare floors, they will not need mechanical contrivances for protection. Possibly it would be well to place sheets of heavy wrapping paper on top of each pile to catch the dust.

Thus far I have not spoken of portfolios. These, if used, should have cloth flaps to fold over the edges of maps; are to be treated as atlases and kept on shelves; and when large require horizontal rolls for supports, with perpendicular roller partitions. Their expense is too great to permit many librarians

indulging in them extensively. However, a few can be used most advantageously where certain collections are much handled, and are, of necessity, carried from room to room.

And now we approach the one illuminated point in the murky atmosphere of perplexities surrounding the harassed map librarian—the cataloging.

The same general catalog rules that apply to books apply equally to maps, the following being the essentials to be noted: locality; title; date; scale; projection; author; if compiled, the authorities; if great accuracy is desired, the engraver; and if a reproduction, the particular character of the process. The size of the neat line and the geographical limits of the sheet, in latitude and longitude, should always be given, for these will determine oftener than any other items whether a sheet must be consulted.

Maps can, however, be most effectively cataloged by the use of key charts, which, on a single map of large scale, show at once all a library possesses relative to any given locality. And the fact that it has nothing can be ascertained with a much smaller expenditure of time and patience than is required to read many cards about which the seeker cares nothing. By introducing schemes of color and similar devices in the limits of maps, as shown upon the "key," a great deal of information may be graphically imparted, as, for example, nationality of authorities, where maps of exploration are concerned; or the approximate date of maps around cities, where resurveys are frequent; or any other class of information especially needed by the librarian. In this one respect maps hold an advantage over and above all other treasures of the library.

Series of maps, like those of the British Admiralty, should be kept together, and their own serial numbers used in finding them. Such series have their own catalogs, which are as complete as can be made. When a series of maps, like the 16-sheet map of Switzerland, constitute the entire map of a country, they can be bound and used as an atlas, thereby lessening the possibility of losing any of the sheets. Of course there still remain such disadvantages as the awkwardness of handling, etc., which may overweigh any advantages gained by this form. These details each librarian must decide for himself.

Taking it altogether, however, the work of the map librarian is far from drawing to a close. More is known of the world, and although that information has been better charted in the 19th than in any preceding century, it will be long before the task is completed. African maps and the polar regions also give us examples which illustrate our ignorance of even the physical features of our globe. New islands are constantly being raised to view, while the coasts of the continents are crumbling away. All these changes are of the utmost importance to the navigator—as to many others. As long as the forces of nature war with each other, or man seeks to subjugate man, the maps will bear record of the results. Even an eternal peace, while it *might* prevent the boundaries of nations from changing—were purchase not resorted to for that purpose—would only vary the character of the new data appearing upon the maps; for new cities, railroads, canals and other innovations would multiply in proportion as calm and prosperity reigned upon the earth.

American librarians should, of all others, show a zealous interest in collecting carefully all existing maps of their own country; for the rapid settling and development still in progress render many maps antiquated and comparatively inaccurate as to cadastral features often before they are ready for issue. Nowhere can history be more readily seen or so quickly apprehended as in a comparison of maps of one locality made at short intervals.

MAPS: THEIR VALUE AND AVAILABILITY

Mr. Walter B. Briggs, then Librarian of Trinity College, in the following paper, which was presented at a meeting of the New York Library Association, September 21, 1911, gives a good bibliography of articles relating to maps and lays particular emphasis upon the indexing of maps in books.

Mr. Briggs was born in Charlemont, Mass., September 8, 1870. He began work at sixteen years of age as a page in the Harvard College Library, and in 1896 became superintendent of the Reading Room, continuing until 1904. For some years during this period he had charge, under Justin Winsor, of the Map Collection. From 1904 to 1909 he was Reference Librarian of the Brooklyn Public Library, and from then until 1915 he was Librarian of Trinity College, Hartford, Connecticut. Since 1915 he has been Assistant Librarian of the Harvard Library, in charge of the Reference and Circulating Departments. He has taken special courses at Harvard and in 1913 received the honorary degree of M.A. from Brown University.

The publications of the American Library Association and the Library of Congress are evidences of the spirit, among the libraries of America, of cooperation and economical efficiency. The value and usefulness of every library has been much increased by the publication of Poole's Index to Periodical Literature and its supplements, the A. L. A. Index to General Literature and the A. L. A. Portrait Index. These results of happy cooperation are monuments to the names of their editors, Poole, Fletcher and Lane. They are a true part of America's contribution to democracy in that they make available to all the people great fields of literature and information previously almost inaccessible.

Among the publications of the Library of Congress are two that are particularly noteworthy and of far greater practical value than is commonly realized. These are the two great indexes of maps prepared by the chief of the division of maps and charts, Mr. Philip Lee Phillips. The first is a work of 1137 pages, published in 1901, with the title, *A List of Maps of America in the Library of Congress.* The second is in two volumes, covering 1659 pages, entitled, *A List of Geographical Atlases in the Library of Congress,* with Bibliographical Notes.

Even yet, however, we have not extracted from the books upon the shelves of our libraries all the "by-products" which they are capable of furnishing and for which there is popular and genuine demand. This paper attempts to indicate one such "by-product" and an economical and cooperative method of securing it. It is to the unindexed maps in the books now on our shelves to which reference is made.

The general subject of the value and the care of maps has been ably and satisfactorily treated in various recent contributions to our library periodicals. Such articles are the following: R. S. Fletcher: Maps and Charts in a Public Library (Buffalo). *Public Libraries,* 1899, 4:444. C. W. Andrews: Maps in Public Libraries. *Public Libraries,* 1903, 8:22. Thomas Letts: Notes on the Cataloguing of Maps. *Library Journal,* 1902, 27:74. Thomas Letts: Maps—Handling, Classifying, Cataloguing, 1904. Published in the Proceedings of the Eighth International Geographic Congress. The same article, with slight changes, appeared in the Bulletin of the American Geographical Society for August 1905. Hantzsch: Die Landkartenbestande der Königlichen Öffentlichem Bibliothek zu Dresden. Nebst Bemerkungen über Einrichtung und Verwaltung von Kartensammlungen. This appeared in 1904 as a Beiheft zum *Zentralblatt für Bibliothekswesen.* It is a monograph of 146 pages and full of valuable suggestions upon methods of cataloging maps. F. K. W. Drury: The Care of Maps. *A. L. A. Bulletin,* 1908, 347-54. This paper was read before the college and reference section of the American Library Association. It contains a full bibliography and renders unnecessary any further treatment of the subject. The present paper will not take the time to do more than emphasize two points brought out in these articles. First, the need of adding to our catalogs under the subject of maps, many more

cards than is now the practice, and what is of particular importance, adopting some uniform method of more fully describing the maps. The other point is one recommended in the papers of Mr. Andrews and Mr. Drury, i. e. the value, in exhibiting maps, of the Jenkins revolving map rack. Where wall space is scarce as is always the case, this device makes it possible conveniently to exhibit thirty large maps or one hundred and fifty small maps of the size of the topographical sheets of the United States Geological Survey. It is used by the Library of Congress and the Boston Public Library, and probably by other libraries. It furnishes the facility of exhibiting maps of interest as they appear in our books and magazines. The writer advocates, for such a purpose, the temporary removal of maps from books and magazines. Types of maps warranting this treatment are the following: The National Geographic Magazine Map of Mexico on a scale of 1:5,000,000 (or 1 inch = 78.9 statute miles). Prepared by J. G. Bartholomew and edited by Gilbert A. Grosvenor. 17 × 24¼ inches. (Map of) South Peru and North Bolivia, on a scale of 1:2,000,000 (or 1 inch = 31.56 statute miles), 22¾ × 20 inches. This is published in Markham's Incas of Peru, 1911, and was originally prepared by this great authority for the Royal Geographical Society. Every reader of Prescott's Conquest of Peru should have his attention called to this map. The Orographical Map of the St. Lawrence Basin. By J. G. Bartholomew, on a scale of 1:5,000,000 (or 1 inch = 78.9 statute miles). Published in 1905 in S. E. Dawson's The Saint Lawrence Basin and its Border Lands. 15½ × 28 inches. The writer's enjoyment of the trip through the Great Lakes, to and from the conference of the A. L. A. at Mackinac, was immensely increased by the possession of the beautifully printed and graphic map of the region.

The teachers of history and geography in our colleges and schools are placing greater emphasis upon, and making far more use of, good maps than formerly. A glance through the files of the educational journals, particularly *The Journal of Geography,* and *School and Science Mathematics,* shows this to be true. Another evidence of interest is the recent action of the New England Teachers Association in collecting and depositing in Simmons College " the nucleus of an instructive and helpful collection of maps, charts, books, casts, models,

wall pictures, and the like, which will gradually be enlarged to meet the needs of all history teachers." An article in the Boston Transcript of September 9, 1911, states that the idea was suggested by the temporary exhibition of "Aids to the visualization of history" held in Teachers College, Columbia University, in December, 1909, during the session of the American Historical Association. Librarians could well make practical use of this collection. It offers an opportunity for comparison and selection that should be welcomed and used.

The maps in such a collection are chiefly of the large divisions of the world, and on a small scale. Maps of later date, of much larger scale and of more detail because covering a limited territory and of greater authority, are hidden in the books on our shelves. Let me here quote the opinion of an expert in this subject, Mr. Letts, keeper of maps in the American Geographical Society, who writes as below in his paper in the Library Journal: "You will be surprised to find how much valuable cartographic matter is available in every library if only the necessary trouble can be taken to extract the subjects from the encyclopedias, atlases, guide books, directories and books of travel in which they are absolutely forgotten, hidden away and in the pressure of other ideas driven out of mind. The Encyclopedia Britannica, Johnson's Cyclopedia and the interesting collection of Baedeker's Guide Books would supply over one thousand different titles which even a small library might possess."

If there is available at present any index to the best maps in recent books, it does not appear to be in the hands of our librarians. Information of much value is to be obtained from the *Bulletin of the American Geographical Society,* the *Geographical Journal, Annales de Geographie,* particularly its supplement *Bibliographie Geographique Annuelle,* Petermann's *Mitteilungen* and other geographical journals, and those should all be used in compiling the particular index suggested.

It would be well to outline here the field covered by the publications of the Library of Congress to which reference has been made. While the *List of Maps of America in the Library of Congress* brings out maps in books and magazines and some encyclopedias, it is limited to America and does not cover books published after 1897, although a supplemental volume is promised eventually. The *List of Geographical Atlases in the Library of*

Congress is confined, as its title indicates, to atlases. In its field it is of immeasurable value. Its fulness of description and thorough analysis is shown by the fact that the subject index contains over forty thousand references to the thirty-four hundred atlases indexed. The chief value of both of the publications is, however, historical.

No better list of the kind of books containing the cartographical material that it is suggested should be indexed could be found, than the bibliographies in the *Statesman's Yearbook*. Here in the issue for 1911 under Argentine Republic we find thirty-seven titles of books, twenty of which are in English, of recent date, and to be found in many libraries. In the seventeen references to maps of Argentine Republic in the Library of Congress List of Maps of America, none are in books in English. Under Peru in the *Statesman's Yearbook* are found thirty-two titles of books, sixteen of which are in English. In the Library of Congress list there are sixty-three references to maps of Peru, but there are few titles of recent books likely to be in any but the largest libraries. Although the editor of the *Statesman's Yearbook*, Mr. J. Scott Keltie, is the secretary of the Royal Geographical Society and the editor of its publications, it does not state in these bibliographies in the Yearbook whether or not a work contains a map. This is no doubt on account of the brief title necessary. A suggestion from our college and reference section or better from the American Library Association, that books containing maps be noted and the scale of the map indicated might be well received by Dr. Keltie.

The writer believes that there is need of a fully annotated list of atlases and maps in print, together with an index to the best maps in recent books and periodicals. After such a work had been issued a yearly supplement might well be a part of the American Library Index.

It is possible that the Library of Congress has on hand the material for such an index of maps in recent books, for in the report of the librarian for 1901 we read that the card catalog in the division of maps includes individual maps in books as well as those separate or in atlases. Certainly cooperation could be expected from this source as well as from the American Geographical Society, the Royal Geographical Society and special workers in this field.

PAMPHLETS

Inevitably any discussion of the use and treatment of pamphlets awakens the question "What is a pamphlet?" In *Public Libraries,* 1915, p.65, appeared the following altogether satisfactory definition, based upon Mr. Walter S. Biscoe's article "Pamphlets" (World's Library Congress. Papers, 826).

"A *pamphlet* is a printed work consisting of one or more sheets of paper fastened together but not bound. Unbound serials and sequents which as issued are intended to form component parts of a larger volume are not to be considered as pamphlets."

THE PRESERVATION OF PAMPHLETS

In 1876 pamphlets were as much a matter of concern as they now are. The following article by Charles Ammi Cutter discusses, in his lively manner, the two great issues involved in this perennial problem:—who shall collect pamphlets and what kinds of pamphlets shall a particular person collect? This paper was read at the first conference of the American Library Association, October 4-6, 1876, and invited considerable discussion. A few excerpts from this discussion are of special interest historically and because they give the opinions of eminent pioneers in the Association. They are included here and will follow the paper by Mr. Cutter. A short biography of Mr. Cutter was given in Volume IV of this series—*The Library and Its Organization.*

When a librarian investigates the state of his mind in relation to those thin, limp books which we call pamphlets, he probably finds therein two distinct feelings. First, in view of the trouble they give him, the contempt with which many of his clients regard them, and the comparative rarity of the occasions on which they are of use, he has a decided wish that none had ever been printed, or that at the end of a certain time after publication they would vanish into thin air. Pamphlets have hitherto been the plague of the librarian, and, although in several ways the dawning of a better day is visible, we are still influenced by the past. If they are put upon the shelf unbound, they will not stand up: they fall behind the other books; they curl up and get dog's-eared and dirty. If they are tied in bundles, it requires superhuman patience to untie and tie them up again neatly whenever one is called for or some are to be put away. The boxes often used are mere dust-bins if open at the top, and if open at the side are apt to get overfilled, and to

bulge out and come to pieces. The "institute case," in which each pamphlet has its own brown-paper wrapper, and its title entered upon a list on the door of the box, is a model of neatness; but who has time to write all these titles, or money to buy the boxes and to replace the perishable elastics with which the doors are fastened? The Woodruff file-holders—boxes in which the pamphlets are arranged like cards in the drawers of a card-catalogue, and are kept upright by a movable block held in place by a patent spring—are, I am told, easy to keep in order and consult, but they also cost money; moreover, these boxes are too new to form as yet part of the librarian's mental furniture and alter his feelings on this matter. If pamphlets are bound separately, as in the British Museum, the cost is altogether disproportioned to their value; if they are bound in volumes by subjects, there is the trouble of keeping them till a sufficient number on any one subject accumulates, and the binding is not inexpensive, whether it be done in the usual way or by means of the excellent Emerson binder.

And then the character of the pamphlets that come in: the advertisements of patent medicines, the ravings of soured politicians, the drivellings of insane persons, the milk-and-water of tracts, and sometimes the foulness that comes from publishing firms for the propagation of vice. I know a library that in the next few months will receive several pounds of Centennial guide-books, cards of manufacturers collected at the Exhibition, and the like. Materials for history! We would give much for an authentic manuscript written in a Swiss lake dwelling; but is it worth while that posterity should know that we in 1876 were solicited to use Bixby's Best Blacking or Radway's Ready Relief? —Besides that there will be sufficient monumental evidence of such facts as long as there are any rocks left in American scenery.

And need I say what the cataloguing is: how much worse than that of a book; how pamphlets are more often anonymous or pseudonymous; how their titles are long and difficult to abridge, and their subjects hard to ascertain for the classed catalogue—not to say anything of the large family which really cannot be said to have any subject at all, or perhaps, like Lord Bacon, "take all knowledge to be their province," and treat *de omnibus rebus et quibusdam aliis?* We librarians may be excused, then, if we have occasionally a pretty strong feeling of disgust and some very destructive thoughts towards this kind of literature.

But, on the other hand, no librarian—no one, at least, who has chosen his profession because books were the source of his greatest pleasure, the object of his chief regard, the one thing from which he could not keep himself away, the cause, in fact, he almost feels, for which the rest of the world was made,—no such librarian, when he has a pamphlet in his hand, can find it in his heart to destroy it. I am sure that the keepers of college and historical-society libraries will confess that even the much-quoted Mohammedan has not a higher reverence for every piece, however insignificant, of written or printed paper than they. And before this Convention there is no need of arguing that they are right; of recalling the lawsuits decided, and obscure points of history and genealogy settled by pamphlets; of quoting Lord Macaulay on the value of ballads and other ephemeral productions of the press, or citing the Bodleian buying chapbooks for pounds which it once would not take as a gift. The Librarian of Congress says that the test of a book's worth lies in the answer to the question, "Will it do good to any human soul?" Another thought may give us an interest in it: "This has occupied a mind, more or less; some one has worked over this, imagining that he was to win fame or to benefit mankind." Can you be so cruel as to destroy his little hope of immortality? Indeed many of us can claim no other place among the great band of authors than is given by a few pages stitched together, not volumes, not a book, but—a pamphlet. A librarian may well esteem himself—as one is called in the British Museum—the *keeper* of the printed books, and that without much regard to the value or probable use of what is kept—just because they are books. It is a weakness—dotage, if you like—but the weakness has served a good purpose in the preservation of much that would otherwise have been lost. The good and the bad have been saved together; yet on the whole this is better than that in the destruction of the useless the inestimable should have perished also.

But though it is well that pamphlets should be kept, it by no means follows that all librarians should keep them. This privilege and trust of preserving "the materials of history" ought to be given to those only who can worthily perform it; this burden should be laid only upon those shoulders which are strong enough to bear it. Institutions that have only one hundred, or five hundred, or even one thousand dollars a year

to meet all expenses, ought not to spend any part thereof, however small, even a few dollars, in binding and storing anything that will not further their main object—on the chance of being at some time of use. They cannot afford, as a merchant might say, to carry dead stock; and their librarians usually have too much other work to do to arrange and catalogue any considerable collection of tracts. Their time and the funds at their disposal must be devoted to literature that will be read. A library that has not a large circulation to deal with,—one like the Astor,—or that has abundant funds,—like the Boston Public,—is of the kind to undertake this work.

Of course there are certain classes of tracts that any library, however small, will retain. A society or college will religiously preserve all that relates to its history and that of its members; as the Princeton Library has a "graduates' alcove," filled with books, pamphlets, magazine articles, anything that has been written by its graduates or about them. A town library will collect all that bears upon the lives of the townsmen and the history of the town and the county, and a selection of those that deal with state and national history; but the miscellaneous trifles, of which a few from time to time stray into every library, and loads of which may occasionally come, should be turned over to institutions much better fitted, by their means and the character of their circulation, to deal with them and make them useful—the historical to historical societies, the theological to theological schools, the medical or otherwise professional to libraries of corresponding character (always supposing that there are any such able and willing to take care of them), and the residue to some large general library that manifests a disposition to value and keep them.

And it is not merely for the relief of the smaller libraries that I urge this, but also for the greater convenience of the public. Research is much facilitated by the concentration of material. What an advantage it will be to have a complete collection of medical periodicals, dissertations, books, at Washington in the General Medical Library and, it is to be hoped, at several other points,—for our country is too large to be content with one centre. How much more convenient it is for a physician, looking up his subject historically, that fifteen pamphlets are where he can see them all at once, and where he knows beforehand that he shall find them, than if they were

dispersed in fifteen medical libraries or as many town libraries, so that he had to hunt through scores of catalogues to discover where they were, and then to visit a dozen counties to see them. I do not deny that, supposing these to be so dispersed, some one of them might once in a hundred years be of use to some townsman, but I maintain that such benefit does not begin to pay the town for the care of all the others that must be kept with it. For the same reason that we have great mercantile establishments and opera houses and art museums and international exhibitions in cities and not in country villages, we ought to have complete collections of little sought books in the same centres, where enough can and will use them to justify their existence. The countryman can go to the city to seek what he needs in his investigations, because he has many other inducements to go there. The city man cannot well visit *several* towns. Moreover, the pamphlets themselves are much more likely to be preserved where a business is made of sorting and cataloguing them than where they are likely to be regarded as a nuisance, thrust away in corners, covered with dust and nibbled by literary mice.

I would therefore have our library system composed, *first,* of a collection of books in every town, small perhaps, but exceedingly active in circulation because chosen for that express end—libraries that shall carry on the common-school education as high as possible with the best works in the English language, but shall make no attempt to foster original research, for which their means will be utterly inadequate; and *secondly,* of libraries in our cities or at colleges, well endowed, capable of doing all that the others can do in a greater degree, and also of serving as safe depositories where the entire literature of this generation can be carried on to the next—where the historian, the genealogist, the antiquarian, may be able to pursue his inquiries successfully, and where any specialist can find, as far as may be, all that has been written on his subject. The best place, it is true, for the pamphlets that would suit this last inquirer would be libraries belonging to his own profession, trade or other occupation; but as yet few of these are established on a sufficiently solid basis to be trustworthy repositories, and moreover it is a question whether such libraries cannot much better be carried on as branches or special departments of a great public library. Waiving that question now, the formula I propose is, Like to like:

local pamphlets to local libraries, professional or scientific pamphlets to the larger general libraries.

DISCUSSION

Prof. Robinson.—When I first entered upon the duties of a librarian, I thought it quite a simple matter to dispose of pamphlets: but I took a long lesson, and thought differently soon afterwards. I had to attack an immense pile of the most miscellaneous nature. I resolved that if a pamphlet was worth saving, it was worth a cheap binding, either by itself or with a few others of its class; and so every pamphlet in the pile went into a binding. About one hundred and fifty stout volumes was the result. I was able to get them bound for thirty cents a volume, without lettering on the back. A few of the better class, however, were bound more expensively and lettered. Of the cheaper class I prepared pretty full titles on paper, and pasted them on the backs. It cost me a good deal of work, but I think it paid. These books were catalogued under the titles I made, and most of them have been very useful since. I think the plan a good one to keep pamphlets properly classified as they are received, and, as often as small bundles on any general subject accumulate, get them bound, and give the volume some general title. This work is not tedious if it is constantly done. The very best might be kept indexed while they are in a pamphlet form, the index to be transferred to a more general index of volumes when bound. This is the course I pursue, and I can recommend it.

I am sorry to dissent from the opinion of so distinguished a librarian as the author of the paper to which we have just listened, but I could not give up my pamphlets to be distributed among special libraries, or to go to any great centre. We want them where we can lay our hands upon them at once; and by making volumes of them, and indexing them, this can be done. I don't know but I might get swamped if I had a ton turned in upon me at once; but where only a few hundred are received each year, my method works admirably.

Dr. Read.—Mr. President, as I was walking with my friend, Professor Thomas, who is known to be one of the most indefatigable collectors of pamphlets in the country, from

our lunch at the Continental Hotel, and as passing along the streets, saw him gathering up his fragments of literature, even to advertisements for some new invention or rare article of use, I began for the moment, I confess, to feel a degree of contempt for this kind of labor, and to wonder at the various tastes of men which lead them to all manner of pursuits. If not having much of this feeling, I wished at least to put him on the defensive, and hear what he had to say in behalf of the work on which he was largely spending both time and money, in the collection and the arrangement of his material. Among other things I said, "How little you can do at best in gathering the multifarious pamphlets which are published on all manner of subjects, throughout the extent of our country, and which are intended to serve but the purpose of a day. Now," I proceeded, "I have myself published, I suppose at a venture, about fifty pamphlets on questions of education, of political economy, of public improvement, of finance, and I know not what; not one of which, I presume to say, is in your collection of millions." But he replied, "I have many of them, and perhaps all; and possibly, unless you are a careful man, have them better preserved and arranged than you have yourself. Some of your later ones I have obtained within a few days and placed among my treasures." After this *argumentum ad hominem*, I could no longer doubt, if in reality I had before to any considerable extent doubted, the value of these collections. My friend, as we continued our conversation seriously on the subject, stated to me several cases in which he had been able to furnish from his collection, information to different departments of government, both state and national, which had aided in guiding counsel and determining action—information which could hardly be elsewhere obtained. Here is a direct and practical utility often needed in settling facts in courts of law, to say nothing of historical facts of interest. If we would "remember the days of old," as was the divine command to the Jews; if we would have a true and living history of any community in our age of printing, of its controversies, political, ecclesiastical or local, of its leading men and striking events, we must preserve the pamphlets that have been from time to time issued from the press. He that does this work performs a most valuable public service.

Every town and neighborhood should make it a part of public duty to preserve in its library, as a part of its documentary history, the pamphlet literature pertaining to itself, for reference and making up its record for the future.

There is still another class of pamphlets of a wider range on art, science, invention, international relations, etc., which are well worthy of being preserved as a part even of our national literature, and in fact as evidence of our civilization.

I cannot, Mr. President, in too strong terms express my approbation of the excellent paper which has been read before you, and I fear I shall weaken its force by crude utterances of my own.

Mr. Poole.—Mr. Cutter, in his interesting paper, probably from want of time, stopped short of telling us how pamphlets are treated in his own library. The Boston Athenæum, it is well known, has one of the largest and most valuable collections of early and rare pamphlets in our country, and it is the occasion of joyful congratulation to all students of early American history that the entire collection will be included in the learned and exhaustive catalogue of the library, which Mr. Cutter has now in press. The arrangement of these pamphlets was made many years ago; but I think in our day the arrangement could scarcely be improved. The 16mo pamphlets are bound in one series, the volumes lettered A, and numbered 1, 2, 3, 4, etc. consecutively; the octavo pamphlets are bound in another series, lettered B; and quartos in another, lettered C, which are numbered in the same manner. A dozen or more pamphlets are bound in one volume, to which is prefixed a table of contents in manuscript. As far as was practicable, those on the same subject or by the same author were placed together. No very rigid classification was attempted in the arrangement for binding. An elaborate index to the collection, under author and subject, was made by the late Dr. A. A. Gould, the eminent naturalist, when he was a young man.

Mr. Cutter (in reply to a question of Mr. Poole).—I did not like the plan pursued at the Boston Athenæum of binding pamphlets in four series (A, B, C, D), distinguished only by their size, and kept together in a room of their own, for two reasons. In the first place, if pam-

phlets on twenty different subjects are bound together in one volume, that volume is twenty times as likely to be wanted at once by two people as if all the pamphlets in it treated of one subject; and if a reader wants twenty pamphlets on any question, it is a great convenience to him to have them all within one binding, instead of having to send for twenty different volumes, and of course it gives less trouble to the attendants. Therefore I prefer to classify my pamphlets before binding them. In the second place, in a library whose readers have access to the shelves it is very desirable that all the works, whether books or pamphlets, on a given topic should be together in the alcove devoted to that topic, and not be kept apart in a "tract room," especially if there is no subject arrangement in that room. It is true that the catalogue will guide the inquirer in the latter case, but I find that for most purposes the books themselves are the best subject-catalogue, especially when the classification on the shelves is made very minute. I have therefore made a fifth series of tract volumes (E), which are distributed all over the library according to their topics. When volumes of miscellaneous pamphlets come into the library already bound, of course we add them to the series kept in the tract-room. Unbound pamphlets are either kept classified in boxes till enough on the subject accumulate to bind, or are put on the shelves in Emerson binders, which have the great advantage of admitting of additions whenever anything is received that deserves to go in the same covers.

Mr. Winsor.—I have lately adopted a plan of disposing of pamphlets promptly without encountering the delays of binding. Half-bound covers like those of a book, with a back of say half an inch width, and of various sizes, are kept in stock. Opening the cover, you find three stub-leaves, or guards of stout manila paper, in the place of the ordinary leaves. One is attached to the back midway up and down, with one on each side on the outer edge, just where the hinge comes on which the cover turns. If the pamphlet is a thick one, the middle stub-leaf is torn out, and the pamphlet is fastened by paste between the other two. If the pamphlet is "stabbed" instead of being stitched, and its cover is simply pasted on, the cover

should be removed and reattached outside the stub-leaves. We have in Boston and Cambridge probably the largest collection of pamphlets gathered at any one point in the country, making accessible to every investigator an aggregate of from half to three quarters of a million. The most important of these repositories are the library of Harvard College, the Boston Public Library, the Boston Athenæum, with valuable but less extensive gatherings in the collections of the Historical Society, the Congregational Library, and in the New England Genealogical Society's Library. In my own library it is not our practice to discard a pamphlet as duplicate, unless we have it classified or bound up in its various relations. Thus the address of welcome, which has been so kindly bestowed upon us by our friend Mr. Wallace, we should preserve, first, in connection with his own name; second, among the issues of the Pennsylvania Historical Society, in whose behalf he spoke; and again, in connection with the documentary history of this convention—making three copies of that pamphlet, which we hold to be serviceable.

Mr. Dewey.—It is evident from the discussion that the small library cannot afford to treat the mass of pamphlets as books. There are not a few libraries with which I am acquainted that would spend every dollar of their income in this way should they catalogue and handle each pamphlet received as if it were a book. Whatever may be the value of the pamphlets, no one claims that they are more important than the books; and in not a few cases it is impossible to care for both. This being the fact, these small libraries *must* either do without pamphlets entirely, refusing them, or giving them away to the central libraries as proposed; or they must have some means of keeping them without incurring much expense. Now, Mr. Chairman, I believe it desirable that every library should keep a pamphlet collection, and also believe it practicable to do so without incurring any appreciable expenses. My own method is this: when a pamphlet comes into the library, I of course glance at it to see what it is. At this time I pencil on the corner three figures, and toss it on the shelf from which the attendants are replacing books returned. For instance, if a political speech on free

trade comes in, I mark on the corner 337, which means *Class* 3, SOCIAL SCIENCE; *Division* 3, POLITICAL ECONOMY; *Section* 7, FREE TRADE. No expense whatever is incurred, for the number is written instantly while the pamphlet is in hand. Still that pamphlet on free trade can be produced almost instantly when it is again wanted, for it is placed in a simple numerical arrangement, where the dullest boy can find it when called for. The general indexes to our shelves, which we find invaluable, guide a stranger instantly to the class number. Certainly this is much better than either to throw away or give away those thin books whose value has been so thoroughly established.

CLIPPINGS AND EPHEMERA

Anything which happens to be drawn out of a modern filing case gives the impression of up-to-date service, and in fact it is so apt to be; it is also a service that is in accord with familiar business methods. Furthermore, such material is viewed with more or less satisfaction by those persons who are impatient in the face of personal investigation. Loose printed items may be assembled according to the fancy of the user and disposed of expeditiously.

An article describing newspaper office ready-reference collections will be found on page 325.

Since newspapers have appropriated the crisp and distinctive appellation "Morgue," the home of a similar group of properties, peculiar to public libraries, with equal cheerfulness, might be dubbed the "Happy Hunting Ground."

Those who clip and file will find worthy of special consideration the practical suggestions offered by Miss Charlotte M. Brown, Librarian of the University of Southern California, appearing in *The Library Journal* of March 1, 1924.

All clippings on important current subjects are pasted on typewriter paper or on the regular filler and placed in loose-leaf notebook covers such as are used by college students. We use the regular black 9¼ × 11½ inch, three-ring type, as pamphlets may be inserted with the clippings. If the article is printed on both sides of the paper we typewrite the part on the reverse side and insert in the proper place.

These clipping books are classified and catalogued, and stand on the shelves in regular order with the books. New articles when clipped may be inserted at any time.

REPORT ON SCRAP-BOOKS

More than twenty-five articles, including the present extensive symposium, have come into being in order that librarians might do justice to the humble scrap-book. In spite of the advantages offered by a vertical file, scrap-books still thrive within a limited sphere; the era of specialization finds in them ready and adaptable tools.

This report, covering eight pages of *The Library Journal,* is too voluminous to be reprinted as a whole at this time although interesting and entertainingly serious, and reflecting the opinions of a large group of prominent librarians. The selections appearing here are typical passages.

Willis Arthur Bardwell, librarian of the Brooklyn Library, who presented the report, at the conference of the American Library Association, in 1889, was born at Williamstown, Massachusetts, October 15, 1840. From 1859 to 1868 he was engaged as clerk in the book business in Brooklyn, New York. In 1869 he became assistant librarian of the Mercantile Library of Brooklyn, and, in 1888, librarian, when it was consolidated with the Brooklyn Library. In 1901, when this library was merged with the Brooklyn Public Library, Mr. Bardwell became assistant librarian of the latter institution; his death occurred March 27, 1908.

High up above the roar of Broadway, less intense now since the retirement of that lumbering through musical Knickerbocker institution, the Broadway stage,—on the third floor of No. 706 of that thoroughfare, is the establishment of Mr. Henry Romeike, whose specialty is press cuttings. A few years ago it would scarcely have seemed possible that such a business as this could be made remunerative; yet to-day there are employed

in this place a staff of twenty-eight people, by whom 2,000 to 3,000 newspapers are examined daily, and extracts marked and cut out; the principle dailies of all the large cities being received for this purpose. Twenty thousand envelopes are addressed and forwarded each month, the postage amounting to $70 per week. During the week ending April 6, of this year, 8,000 clippings were mailed.

The object of this bureau, which was founded in 1884 on the plan of the original, which was started in London in 1881, is to supply subscribers with press comments from American and many foreign newspapers, a staff of employes clipping and mailing to patrons, day by day, notices which concern them.

Societies are supplied with items referring to their work, or to the subjects in which they are interested; commercial companies with notices regarding themselves or their competitors; statesmen and other public men, with personal paragraphs, or materials from which to construct a speech or some special article; authors, editors and playwrights, with reviews of their doings and writings; and artists, with criticisms of their works. The advantages of this system to its clients are the saving of time required in searching for information desired, and of the cost of subscription to the large number of journals used in process of research.

Probably the largest collection of clippings in existence, on any especial subject, is Mr. Thomas S. Townsend's *War Library of National, State, and Biographical Records,* now deposited at the library of Columbia College, New York. This journalistic record comprises, including the Digest, more than 100 volumes, containing 60,000 pages, or 240,000 columns, equal to twice that number of columns of an ordinary-sized book.

The Digest, or condensation of the collection, when completed, will be in about thirty volumes of the size of the largest bank ledgers, and containing in all 36,000 pages of manuscript. This work was commenced in 1860, was continued during the War of the Rebellion, and to some extent has been kept up to the present time, and is a summary of each day's history as furnished by the newspapers of the principal cities of America, culled and preserved in scrap-book form; the whole furnishing an invaluable fund of material to the author, who in the future shall write the complete history of the Civil War. Mr. Townsend has spent twenty-eight years of his life, and has ex-

pended $25,000 on this immense work; while his assistant, Miss Julia L. Peace, has worked steadily for twenty-two years, compiling and copying the Digest and Index, in a handwriting as distinct as large print, and with head-lines and index entries that are exceedingly artistic.

The clippings are neatly pasted in large volumes of over 700 pages each, and bound in the most substantial manner, each volume covering a period of one month, the whole chronologically arranged from December, 1860, to the end of General Grant's second administration. The price asked for the whole work is $50,000, which would include about five years' additional work in copying and indexing, to make the whole complete, with subject index in one volume. A bill was introduced in the Senate January 26, 1888, authorizing the Librarian of Congress to purchase this work, and it is likely that this disposition of it will finally be made. The government can hardly afford to lose the chance of securing it, for its value will increase as time passes.

The late William Cullen Bryant expressed the opinion that "the age has given birth to few literary undertakings that will bear comparison with this work. The compiling of a lexicon, in any language, is nothing to it. The forty academicians who compiled the dictionary of the French language had a far less laborious task." The Comte de Paris says: "It is a work of the greatest value but seems beyond the strength of one man or the limits of a single life." The late Governor Dix, Horatio Seymour, Colonel McRae, of the late Confederate Army, the New York *Herald, Evening Post* and other papers speak of the collection in the most complimentary terms.

Methods and Cost of Mounting and Preserving Scrap Collections

At the *Boston Public Library,* Mr. Carret personally attends to marking the papers for the boys to cut out. These cuttings are then distributed alphabetically by subjects into envelopes, and afterwards pasted into scrap-books, of which—take biography for instance—one is devoted to each letter; the plan being to supply another book when any letter has filled a volume. Each volume has some ruled paper bound in at the front for an index. Other cuttings, when long enough, are mounted on folds of paper of 8vo size, with inch wide margins

all round, and are turned in with the pamphlets, to be eventually bound up according to subjects. Paste is used for mounting. Clippings are mounted on righthand page only, except in case of biographical notices, where portraits are put in opposite the subject. The scrap-books are made in the bindery attached to the library, and are of sizes to hold two, three, four or five columns of newspaper. Their cost can only be estimated, as also the cost of the time, as no one is devoted exclusively to the work. It is done at odd times by those who would otherwise be idle.

At *Harvard* they follow subjects, gumming into scrap-books which have guards, or paste the clippings on paper, and afterwards have the sheets bound into books with guards. For things like special numbers of newspapers, and other material not easily bound, but which can be folded, a covered clasp envelope is used. No statistics of cost are kept.

At the *New York State Library,* the method is to paste with gum tragacanth on sheets of blank white paper, of good weight, about 6¾ inches long, and folded two or three together, making each section comprise eight or twelve 8vo pages, as they bind in this shape better than in single sheets. In case of an article of thirty or more pages, it is bound in a single volume. They are chary of making books of smaller scraps, and make none of a miscellaneous character; only centennial celebrations, sermons, addresses and long treatises are used.

The experiment of miscellaneous scrap-books was once tried, but the books were not indexed, and as no one can find time to index them they are dead matter. Some years ago seven royal 8vo scrap-books were made and severally entitled, Science and Art, Washingtoniana, Lincolniana, New York History and Biography, Biographical and Historical, and Poetry. Appropriate cuttings are pasted, as they accumulate, in the books, and these will be indexed.

At *Yale,* clippings are mounted in ordinary scrap-books with binder's paste.

The *Wisconsin Historical Society* mounts longer and more valuable articles separately on letter paper, and treats as pamphlets, classifying closely and cataloguing specifically. These are much used by general readers. Shorter articles are put into scrap-books and lettered according to subject. These are less frequently used, and mainly for reference by historical

students. Paste and thick mucilage is used, the former preferred for old and porous newspaper cuttings. It is difficult to estimate cost. The time of one catalogue assistant, when not employed in her special work, is given to this department, mainly in the summer months.

At the *Johns Hopkins University* clippings are pasted on manilla sheets, and enclosed in the Woodruff file boxes for preservation. The marking is done by advanced students in history and political economy, the cutting and pasting by an office boy. This method of preservation is regarded the best yet found for convenience of reference, since it has all the good characteristics of a card catalogue. Various experiments were tried before this plan was adopted. There is very little *cash* expense connected with the work, as the men who look over the papers apply the time on their tuition. As to the cost of mounting, smart boys can be had in Baltimore for $3 a week.

Mr. Carret thinks the future only can decide as to the value of cuttings. There are many topics coming up in all periodicals that will be of value in the future. He considers it the province of any library to collect, in this way, all historical matter touching the town or city in which it belongs; notices of worthy citizens—anything that may be of use to the future historian. The Boston Public Library has at times collected newspapers upon some great public event, such as the death of Garfield, and had them bound up entire by themselves.

Mr. Winsor doubts the advisability of a set purpose of scrapping. Mr. Saunders, after filling about twenty volumes, gave up the practice, not finding the experiment of much value. Comparatively rare calls were made for them when new, and now still fewer. Mr. Peoples, of the New York Mercantile, can see in it a field for a great expenditure of time, money and labor, for which he believes there would be little compensation and has no hesitancy in saying that, for his library, money can be spent to better advantage in other directions, and in ways that would be of much more service to the members. Mr. Edwards, of Philadelphia, has not thought scrapping advisable for the Mercantile, and thinks that, though scraps have their value, they cost a great deal in the item of time, and are difficult to use.

At the Boston Athenæum Mr. C. A. Cutter does no scrapping, which is rather astonishing, considering the insistency of his

requests for a report on the subject. He says: "The only item I can furnish about them is that a collection was offered us a year or more ago, in about 100 octavo volumes, with an index in seven volumes. We bid $1 a volume for it, but the owner wanted $1,000, if I remember right. I think it was afterwards pledged as collateral for a loan of $100."

Mr. Barnwell, of Philadelphia, cannot speak from actual experience, but is of opinion that in every library a department of this kind to cover certain subjects would be found of great interest and of profit quite sufficient to justify the expense, unless the library were very much cramped financially. At the Cincinnati Library Mr. Chester W. Merrill thinks that scrapping is a very useful thing for a library to do, if the necessary time for it can be found, but that the difficulty would be to find the time.

Mr. Howell thinks that judicious scrapping, collecting on such subjects as the librarian knows will interest his constituency, and keeping within the limits of ability to index, would be useful in any library.

Mr. Van Name thinks, regarding the utility of the practice, that though it may be well worth the while of individuals to preserve in this way matter relating to their specialties, it is better for libraries to preserve complete files of newspapers. We cannot tell what may be wanted a century hence, and not unlikely what we should reject as waste will then be sought after. Our American newspapers of the last century are largely occupied with fugitive news of less consequence to us than the local advertisements. Newspapers are bulky and their binding a serious expense. The scrap-book plan diminishes the bulk, but, he imagines, not the expense.

To sum up: Of the forty-six librarians and others reporting on the subject of scrap-books, twenty-two have collections of greater or less magnitude; twenty-four have not any. Of the forty-six who report, thirty-one either have scrap collections or yearnings toward them, which may stimulate to action, and in time result in something tangible; while fifteen do not regard scraps with favor, and will have none of them. They are either appalled at the magnitude of the undertaking, or are convinced that scrapping would not pay for the time and labor it requires; or, possibly, they shrink from an occupation, the fascination of which is very sure to increase with the growth

of one's collection. The principal element of cost is generally admitted to be the time required; but economy in this will do much. A well-selected collection of clippings, properly classified and indexed, must increase in value with age. Will not its maker, like the man who plants a tree, become a benefactor to posterity?

NEWSPAPERS

The articles grouped under this subject treat of the newspaper problem from altogether distinct angles. Theoretically the value of old newspapers is absolutely conceded, and all research workers will testify to the steady demand for bound volumes of local papers, covering any and all years from the earliest extant issues to those of the present time. Not the least of this demand comes from the local newspapers themselves. There is, however, a frequent call upon the resources of one city from citizens of another for information which newspaper files alone may furnish, and, in addition, a general use of these volumes for special evidence and local historical purposes.

For these reasons the space and the expense involved in their care are inevitable.

NEWSPAPERS AS HISTORICAL SOURCES

The following estimate of newspapers as sources for the future historian comes from an authority whose opinions are based less upon theory than experience; it is the expert opinion so urgently desired by the librarian.

James Ford Rhodes, the American historian, was born at Cleveland, Ohio, May 1, 1848. He was educated at New York University and the University of Chicago. Honorary degrees for his historical and research work have been conferred upon him by many universities, including Yale, Harvard, Princeton and Oxford, England. His death occurred January 22, 1927.

The impulse of an American writer in justifying the use of newspapers as historical materials is to adopt an apologetic tone. It is somewhat curious that such should be the case, for newspapers satisfy so many canons of historical evidence. They are contemporary, and, being written without knowledge of the end, cannot bolster any cause without making a plain showing of their intent. Their object is the relation of daily events; and if their relation is colored by honest or dishonest partisanship, this is easily discernible by the critic from the internal evidence and from an easily acquired knowledge of a few external facts. As the journals themselves say, their aim is to print the news; and much of the news is present politics. Moreover, the newspaper itself, its news and editorial columns, its advertisements, is a graphic picture of society.

When Aulard, in his illuminating criticism of Taine, writes that the journals are a very important source of the history of the French Revolution, provided they are revised and checked by one another, the statement seems in accordance with the canons of historical writing; and when he blames Taine for using two journals only and neglecting ten others, which he names, the impression on the mind is the same as if Taine were charged with the neglect of evidence of another class.

One would hardly attempt to justify Taine by declaring that all journals are inaccurate, partisan and dishonest, and that the omission was a merit, not a defect. Leaving out of account the greater size and diffuseness of the modern journal, the dictum of Aulard would seem to apply to any period of history.

Why is it then that some American students fall consciously or unconsciously into an apologetic tone when they attempt to justify the use of newspapers as historical sources? I suppose it is because of the attitude of cultivated society to the newspaper of to-day. Society calls the ordinary newspaper sensational and unreliable; and, if neither, its accounts are so diffuse and badly proportioned as to weary the seeker after the facts of any given transaction. Despite the disfavor into which the American newspaper has fallen in certain circles, I suspect that it has only exaggerated these defects, and that the journals of different democracies have more resemblances than diversities. The newspaper that caters to the "masses" will never suit the "classes," and the necessity for a large circulation induces it to furnish the sheet which the greatest number of readers desires.

But this does not concern the historian. He does not make his materials. He has to take them as they are. It would undoubtedly render his task easier if all men spoke and wrote everywhere with accuracy and sincerity; but his work would lose much of its interest. Take the newspaper for what it is, a hasty gatherer of facts, a hurried commentator on the same, and it may well constitute a part of historical evidence.

When, in 1887, I began the critical study of the History of the United States from 1850-1860, I was struck with the paucity of material which would serve the purpose of an animated narrative. The main facts were to be had in the state papers, the Statutes, the *Congressional Globe* and documents, the records of national conventions and platforms, and the tabulated results of elections. But there was much less private correspondence than is available for the early history of our country; and, compared with the period of the Civil War and later, a scarcity of biographies and reminiscences, containing personal letters of high historical value. Since I wrote my first two volumes, much new matter concerning the decade of 1850 to 1860 has been published. The work of the American Historical Association, and of many historical societies, the monographs of advanced university students, have thrown light upon this, as they have

upon other periods, with the result that future delvers in this field can hardly be so much struck with the paucity of material as I was twenty-one years ago.

Boy though I was during the decade of 1850 to 1860, I had a vivid remembrance of the part that the newspaper played in politics, and the thought came to me that the best way to arrive at the spirit of the times was to steep my mind in journalistic material; that there was the secret of living over again that decade, as the Abolitionist, the Republican, the Whig and the Democrat had actually lived in it. In the critical use of such sources, I was helped by the example of von Holst, who employed them freely in his volumes covering the same period, and by the counsel and collaboration of my friend Edward G. Bourne, whose training was in the modern school. For whatever training I had beyond that of self came from the mastery, under the guidance of teachers, of certain general historians belonging to an epoch when power of expression was as much studied as the collecting and sifting of evidence.

While considering my materials, I was struck with a statement cited by Herbert Spencer as an illustration in his *Philosophy of Style*: "A modern newspaper statement, though probably true, if quoted in a book as testimony, would be laughed at; but the letter of a court gossip, if written some centuries ago, is thought good historical evidence." At about the same time, I noticed that Motley used as one of his main authorities for the battle of St. Quentin the manuscript of an anonymous writer. From these two circumstances, it was a logical reflection that some historians might make an exaggerated estimate of the value of manuscript material because it reposed in dusty archives and could be utilized only by severe labor and long patience; and that, imbued with this idea, other historians for other periods might neglect the newspaper because of its ready accessibility.

These several considerations justified a belief, arrived at from my preliminary survey of the field, that the use of newspapers as sources for the decade of 1850 to 1860 was desirable. At each step of my pretty thorough study of them, I became more and more convinced that I was on the right track. I found facts in them which I could have found nowhere else. The public meeting is a great factor in the political life of this decade, and is most fully and graphically reported in the press.

The newspaper, too, was a vehicle for personal accounts of a quasi-confidential nature, of which I can give a significant example. In an investigation that Edward Bourne made for me during the summer of 1889, he came across, in the *Boston Courier,* an inside account of the Whig convention of 1852, showing, more conclusively than I have seen elsewhere, the reason of the failure to unite the conservative Whigs, who were apparently in a majority, on Webster. From collateral evidence we were convinced that it was written by a Massachusetts delegate; and the *Springfield Republican,* which copied the account, furnished a confirmation of it. It was an interesting story, and I incorporated it in my narrative.

I am well aware that Dr. Dryasdust may ask, What of it? The report of the convention shows that Webster received a very small vote and that Scott was nominated. Why waste time and words over the "might have been"? I can plead only the human interest in the great Daniel Webster ardently desiring that nomination, Rufus Choate advocating it in sublime oratory, the two antislavery delegates from Massachusetts refusing their votes for Webster, thus preventing a unanimous Massachusetts, and the delegates from Maine, among whom was Webster's godson William P. Fessenden, coldly refusing their much-needed aid.

General Scott, having received the nomination, made a stumping-tour in the autumn through some of the western states. No accurate account of it is possible without the newspapers, yet it was esteemed a factor in his overwhelming defeat, and the story of it is well worth preserving as data for a discussion of the question, Is it wise for a presidential candidate to make a stumping-tour during his electoral campaign?

The story of the formation of the Republican party, and the rise of the Know-nothings, may possibly be written without recourse to the newspapers, but thorough steeping in such material cannot fail to add to the animation and accuracy of the story. In detailed history and biographical books, dates, through mistakes of the writer or printer, are frequently wrong; and when the date was an affair of supreme importance, I have sometimes found a doubt resolved by a reference to the newspaper, which, from its strictly contemporary character, cannot in such a matter lead one astray.

I found the newspapers of value in the correction of logical assumptions, which frequently appear in American historical and biographical books, especially in those written by men who bore a part in public affairs. By a logical assumption, I mean the statement of a seemingly necessary consequence which apparently ought to follow some well-attested fact or condition. A striking instance of this occurred during the political campaign of 1856, when "bleeding Kansas" was a thrilling catchword used by the Republicans, whose candidate for president was Frémont. In a year and a half seven freestate men had been killed in Kansas by the border ruffians, and these outrages, thoroughly ventilated, made excellent campaign ammunition. But the Democrats had a *tu quoque* argument which ought to have done much towards eliminating this question from the canvass.

On the night of May 24, 1856, five pro-slavery men, living on the Pottawatomie Creek, were deliberately and foully murdered by John Brown and seven of his disciples; and, while this massacre caused profound excitement in Kansas and Missouri, it seems to have had no influence east of the Mississippi River, although the fact was well attested. A Kansas journalist of 1856, writing in 1879, made this logical assumption: "The opposition press both North and South took up the damning tale . . . of that midnight butchery on the Pottawatomie . . . . Whole columns of leaders from week to week, with startling head-lines, liberally distributed capitals, and frightful exclamation points, filled all the newspapers." And it was his opinion that, had it not been for this massacre, Frémont would have been elected.

But I could not discover that the massacre had any influence on the voters in the pivotal states. I examined, or had examined, the files of the *New York Journal of Commerce, New York Herald, Philadelphia Pennsylvanian, Washington Union* and *Cleveland Plain Dealer,* all Democratic papers except the *New York Herald,* and I was struck with the fact that substantially no use was made of the massacre as a campaign argument. Yet could anything have been more logical than the assumption that the Democrats would have been equal to their opportunity and spread far and wide such a story? The facts in the case show therefore that cause and effect in actual American history are not always the same as the statesman may conceive them in his cabinet or the historian in his study.

In the newspapers of 1850 to 1860 many speeches, and many public, and some private, letters of conspicuous public men are printed; these are valuable material for the history of the decade, and their use is in entire accordance with modern historical canons.

I have so far considered the press in its character of a register of facts; but it has a further use for historical purposes, since it is both a representative and guide of public sentiment. Kinglake shows that the *Times* was the potent influence which induced England to invade the Crimea; Bismarck said in 1877 that the press "was the cause of the last three wars"; Lord Cromer writes, "The people of England as represented by the press insisted on sending General Gordon to the Soudan, and accordingly to the Soudan he was sent"; and it is current talk that the yellow journals brought on the Spanish-American War. Giving these statements due weight, can a historian be justified in neglecting the important influence of the press on public opinion?

As reflecting and leading popular sentiment during the decade of 1850 to 1860, the newspapers of the northern states were potent. I own that many times one needs no further index to public sentiment than our frequent elections, but in 1854 conditions were peculiar. The repeal of the Kansas-Nebraska Act had outraged the North and indicated that a new party must be formed to resist the extension of slavery. In the disorganization of the Democratic party, and the effacement of the Whig, nowhere may the new movement so well be traced as in the news and editorial columns of the newspapers, and in the speeches of the northern leaders, many of these indeed being printed nowhere else than in the press. What journals and what journalists there were in those days! Greeley and Dana of the *New York Tribune;* Bryant and Bigelow of the *Evening Post;* Raymond of the *Times;* Webb of the *Courier* and *Enquirer;* Bowles of the *Springfield Republican;* Thurlow Weed of the *Albany Journal;* Schouler of the *Cincinnati Gazette;* Medill of the *Chicago Tribune,*—all, inspired by their opposition to the spread of slavery, wrote with vigor and enthusiasm, representing the ideas of men who had burning thoughts without power of expression and guiding others who needed the constant iteration of positive opinions to determine their political action.

The main and cross currents which resulted in the formation of the compact Republican party of 1856 have their principal record in the press, and from it, directly or indirectly, must the story be told. Unquestionably the newspapers had greater influence than in an ordinary time, because the question was a moral one and could be concretely put. Was slavery right or wrong? If wrong, should not its extension be stopped? That was the issue, and all the arguments, constitutional and social, turned on that point.

The greatest single journalistic influence was the New York weekly *Tribune* which had in 1854 a circulation of 112,000, and many times that number of readers. These readers were of the thorough kind, reading all the news, all the printed speeches and addresses, and all the editorials, and pondering as they read. The questions were discussed in their family circles and with their neighbors, and, as differences arose, the *Tribune,* always at hand, was consulted and re-read. There being few popular magazines during this decade, the weekly newspaper, in some degree, took their place; and, through this medium, Greeley and his able coadjutors spoke to the people of New York and of the West, where New England ideas predominated, with a power never before or since known in this country. When Motley was studying the old letters and documents of the sixteenth century in the archives of Brussels, he wrote: "It is something to read the real *bona fide* signs manual of such fellows as William of Orange, Count Egmont, Alexander Farnese, Philip the Second, Cardinal Granville and the rest of them. It gives a 'realizing sense' as the Americans have it." I had somewhat of the same feeling as I turned over the pages of the bound volumes of the weekly *Tribune,* reading the editorials and letters of Greeley, the articles of Dana and Hildreth. I could recall enough of the time to feel the influence of this political bible, as it was termed, and I can emphatically say that if you want to penetrate into the thoughts, feelings and ground of decision of the 1,866,000 men who voted for Lincoln in 1860, you should study with care the New York weekly *Tribune.*

One reason why the press was a better representative of opinion during the years from 1854 to 1860 than now, is that there were few, if any, independent journals. The party man read his own newspaper and no other; in that, he found an

expression of his own views. And the party newspaper in the main printed only the speeches and arguments of its own side. Greeley on one occasion was asked by John Russell Young, an associate, for permission to reprint a speech of Horatio Seymour in full as a matter of news. "Yes," Greeley said, "I will print Seymour's speech when the *World* will print those of our side."

Before the war, Charleston was one of the most interesting cities of the country. It was a small aristocratic community, with an air of refinement and distinction. The story of Athens proclaims that a large population is not necessary to exercise a powerful influence on the world; and, after the election of Lincoln in 1860, the 40,000 people of Charleston, or rather the few patricians who controlled its fate and that of South Carolina, attracted the attention of the whole country. The story of the secession movement of November and December, 1860, cannot be told with correctness and life without frequent references to the *Charleston Mercury* and the *Charleston Courier*. The *Mercury* especially was an index of opinion, and so vivid is its daily chronicle of events that the historian is able to put himself in the place of those ardent South Carolinians and understand their point of view.

For the history of the Civil War, newspapers are not so important. The other material is superabundant, and in choosing from the mass of it, the newspapers, so far as affairs at the North are concerned, need only be used in special cases, and rarely for matters of fact. The accounts of campaigns and battles, which filled so much of their space, may be ignored, as the best possible authorities for these are the one hundred and twenty-eight volumes of the United States government publication, the *Official Records* of the Union and Confederate armies. The faithful study of the correspondence and the reports in these unique volumes is absolutely essential to a comprehension of the war; and it is a labor of love. When one thinks of the mass of manuscripts students of certain periods of European history have been obliged to read, the American historian is profoundly grateful to his government that at a cost to itself of $2233 per volume it has furnished him this priceless material in neatly printed volumes with excellent indexes. The serious student can generally procure these volumes gratis through the favor of his Congressman; or, failing

in this, may purchase the set at a moderate price, so that he is not obliged to go to a public library to consult them.

Next to manuscript material, the physical and mental labor of turning over and reading bound volumes of newspapers is the most severe, and I remember my feeling of relief at being able to divert my attention from what Edward L. Pierce called this back-breaking and eye-destroying labor, much of it in public libraries, to these convenient books in my own private library. A mass of other materials, notably Nicolay and Hay's contributions, military narratives, biographies, private correspondence, to say nothing of the Congressional publications, render the student fairly independent of the newspapers. But I did myself make, for certain periods, special researches among them to ascertain their influence on public sentiment; and I also found them very useful in my account of the New York draft riots of 1863. It is true the press did not accurately reflect the gloom and sickness of heart at the North after the battle of Chancellorsville, for the reason that many editors wrote for the purpose of keeping up the hopes of their readers. In sum, the student may congratulate himself that a continuous study of the northern newspapers for the period of the Civil War is unnecessary, for their size and diffuseness are appalling.

But what I have said about the press of the North will not apply to that of the South. Though strenuous efforts have been made, with the diligent cooperation of southern men, to secure the utmost possible amount of Confederate material for the *Official Records,* it actually forms only about 29 per cent of the whole matter. Other historical material is also less copious. For example, there is no record of the proceedings of the Confederate Congress, like the *Globe;* there are no reports of committees like that of the Committee on the Conduct of the War; and even the journal of the Congress was kept on loose memoranda, and not written up until after the close of the war. With the exception of this journal, which has been printed by our government, and the *Statutes at Large,* our information of the work of the Confederate Congress comes from the newspapers and some books of biography and recollections. The case of the southern states was peculiar, because they were so long cut off from intercourse with the outer world, owing to the efficient federal blockade; and the newspaper in its local news, editorials and advertisements, is important material for

portraying life in the Confederacy duirng the Civil War. Fortunately for the student, the southern newspaper was not the same voluminous issue as the northern, and, if it had not been badly printed, its use would be attended with little difficulty. Owing to the scarcity of paper, many of the newspapers were gradually reduced in size, and in the end were printed on half-sheets, occasionally one on brown paper, and another on wall paper; even the white paper was frequently coarse, and this, with poor type, made the news-sheet itself a daily record of the waning fortunes of the Confederacy.

In the history of Reconstruction the historian may be to a large extent independent of the daily newspaper. For the work of reconstruction was done by Congress, and Congress had the full support of the northern people, as was shown by the continuous large Republican majority which was maintained. The debates, the reports and the acts of Congress are essential, and little else is required except whatever private correspondence may be accessible. Congress represented public sentiment of the North, and if one desires newspaper opinion, one may find it in many pithy expressions on the floor of the House or the Senate. For the Congressman and the Senator are industrious newspaper readers. They are apt to read some able New York journal which speaks for their party, and the Congressman will read the daily and weekly newspapers of his district, and the Senator the prominent ones of his state which belong to his party.

For the period which covered Reconstruction, from 1865 to 1877, I used the *Nation* to a large extent. Its bound volumes are convenient to handle in one's own library, and its summary of events is useful in itself, and as giving leads to the investigation of other material. Frequently its editorials have spoken for the sober sense of the people with amazing success. As a constant reader of the *Nation* since 1866, I have felt the fascination of Godkin, and have been consciously on guard against it. I tried not to be led away by his incisive statements and sometimes uncharitable judgments. But whatever may be thought of his bias, he had an honest mind, and was incapable of knowingly making a false statement; and this, with his other qualities, makes his journal excellent historical material. After considering with great care some friendly criticism, I can truly

say that I have no apology to make for the extent to which I used the *Nation*.

Recurring now to the point with which I began this discussion,—that learned prejudice against employing newspapers as historical material,—I wish to add that, like all other evidence, they must be used with care and skepticism, as one good authority is undoubtedly better than a dozen poor ones. An anecdote I heard years ago has been useful to me in weighing different historical evidence. A Pennsylvania-Dutch justice of the peace in one of the interior townships of Ohio had a man arraigned before him for stealing a pig. One witness swore that he distinctly saw the theft committed; eight swore that they never saw the accused steal a pig, and the verdict was worthy of Dogberry. "I discharge the accused," said the Justice. "The testimony of eight men is certainly worth more than the testimony of one."

Private and confidential correspondence is highly valuable historical material, for such utterances are less constrained and more sincere than public declarations; but all men cannot be rated alike. Some men have lied as freely in private letters as in public speeches; therefore the historian must get at the character of the man who has written the letter and the influences surrounding him; these factors must count in any satisfactory estimate of his accuracy and truth. The newspaper must be subjected to similar tests. For example, to test an article or public letter written by Greeley or Godkin, the general situation, the surrounding influences, and the individual bias must be taken into account, and, when allowance is made for these circumstances as well as for the public character of the utterance, it may be used for historical evidence. For the history of the last half of the nineteenth century just such material must be used. Neglect of it would be like neglect of the third estate in the history of France for the eighteenth century.

In the United States we have not, politically speaking, either the first or second estates, but we have the third and fourth estates with an intimate connection between the two. Lord Cromer said, when writing of the sending of Gordon to the Soudan, "Newspaper government has certain disadvantages"; and this he emphasized by quoting a wise remark of Sir George Cornewall Lewis: "Anonymous authorship places the public

under the direction of guides who have no sense of personal responsibility." Nevertheless this newspaper government must be reckoned with. The duty of the historian is, not to decide if the newspapers are as good as they ought to be, but to measure their influence on the present, and recognize their importance as an ample and contemporary record of the past.

PRESERVATION OF MODERN NEWSPAPER FILES

Having in mind the welfare of future historians, the methods for the physical preservation of newspapers, here described by Mr. Lydenberg, are of intense interest. His paper was read, December 30, 1914, before a meeting of teachers of journalism at Columbia University.

Harry Miller Lydenberg was born November 18, 1874 at Dayton, Ohio, and is a graduate of Harvard University in the class of 1897. He has been identified with the New York Public Library since 1896, and has been its chief reference librarian since 1908. Mr. Lydenberg is the author of *The Life of John Shaw Billings* and the *History of the New York Public Library.*

In an effort to solve the problem of the proper preservation of its files of bound newspapers, the New York Public Library made various experiments during the course of the last year and it is a record of these experiments that I lay before you. It is our plan to keep bound files of no American newspapers outside of New York City. We subscribe to a representative selection of American dailies, attempting to cover the entire country in as catholic a way as our funds permit; but these papers are kept only for consultation for two months after receipt, papers three months old being thrown away. Outside the United States we try to subscribe to at least one representative paper from most important countries in the Western Continent and in the Old World, preserving by binding a selection from these foreign subscriptions.

The extent of our files and the geographical position of the Library are two reasons why our volumes are consulted very largely. A third reason is the fact that practically no other library in the City attempts to preserve bound newspapers. This extensive use by people of widely varying conscience and ethical standards means that our copies are subject to more

severe wear and tear than those in most libraries. This renders the problem peculiarly difficult for us, and to this difficulty is added the universal difficulty presented by the character of the paper stock on which these journals are printed. For the period since the use of ground pulp for newspaper stock, we, like other libraries, have recognized that the life of the paper is comparatively short, very short as compared with the life of the journals printed on the rag stock paper of the middle of the nineteenth century and earlier. The constant patching and re-patching of these volumes led us to seek a more permanent treatment. We knew, of course, that various European chemists, particularly Italian and German, had produced transparent compounds that when applied to paper overcame its brittleness, kept it air-proof, and for ordinary use were said to make it practically imperishable. So far as we could learn, however, none of these compounds had been thoroughly tested by subjecting the paper so treated to any severe use. They were all expensive to buy, difficult to procure, and required peculiar skill in their application. They might possibly solve the problem for new papers if these could be treated before they were put in use, but would not solve the problem of repairing and patching old papers that had been used.

We knew, too, that Mr. Chivers of Brooklyn had a preparation that when applied to the edges of bound volumes would, he assured us, keep air from the volume and so tend to preserve it, granted that the volume lay flat on the shelves and was not used. So far as we could see this treatment of edges would be of little help in solving the problem of preservation of volumes that were in frequent use.

After various consultations, conferences and no little thought, we came to the conclusion that the thing needed was the application to these sheets of some binding material that would exclude the air, would hold the fibre together, would be flexible enough to allow turning of the pages and transparent enough to allow the text to be easily read through it. The use of chiffon or light thin silk and the use of Japanese tissue paper seemed to us to offer a possible solution of the problem. To test the availability of these two materials, we selected some old badly broken sheets and some sheets fresh from the press. We covered some of these sheets with Japanese tissue,

and some with silk; some we covered on one side; others we covered on both sides.

We exposed to the sun for periods of between 100 and 150 hours some of the sheets so treated, some untreated sheets, and some sheets partly exposed and partly covered. The result of this exposure test indicated that unprotected paper turned yellow and brittle very rapidly. Paper protected by the silk turned yellow less rapidly, and paper protected by the Japanese tissue showed comparatively slight effect by the sun and remained encouragingly flexible.

We tested the sheets so treated by the Mullen and Ashcroft tests for strength and by the United States Bureau of Standards test for bending or pliability. The results indicated strongly that the paper covered with Japanese tissue on both sides showed less effect from the air and light than the untreated paper or than the paper covered with silk; it showed some favorable results with the strength tests and with the bending tests, the untreated paper showing a strength of 7 pounds (Mullen) and the covered paper a strength of 42 pounds, a six fold increase. Another element in favor of the use of Japanese tissue seemed to us to lie in the fact that the tissue paper itself really consisted of countless laminated fibres, closely interwoven, and thereby, when properly applied to the newspaper stock, served as an air excluder and as a strengthener.

Another experiment consisted of taking two copies of a newspaper, of mounting odd and even numbered pages of a given sheet on the two sides of a sheet of muslin. The primary advantage of this treatment was that cutting or mutilating was much more difficult than in any of the other processes considered by us. The disadvantages of this process were that the bulk of the paper so treated was increased nearly threefold, and the fact that the paper stock itself was still exposed to the air and still liable to deterioration by light and air and to deterioration by handling on the part of readers.

All things considered, therefore, we came to feel that in the use of Japanese tissue lay the most fruitful solution of the problem. To make sure that in the use of paste or binding agent, we introduced no harmful element, we selected a pure rice paste and had this tested by the government Bureau of Standards at Washington, the result of the test showing there

was nothing harmful to paper in any of the ingredients of the paste.

After having conducted these experiments on single sheets—the test being spread over a course of many months—during the summer we selected for actual test under working conditions a volume of the *World* for July and August, 1895, which was in bad condition and in constant need of repair, and the volume of the *World* for July, 1914. The first volume had to be broken out of the original binding, the sheets mounted between the Japanese tissue, then hung up to dry, then run through a mangle, then assembled in signatures, resewed and rebound. The second volume was bound from the publisher's sheets, and was handled first as presenting fewer difficulties and all together being the best introductory sample.

The result was to our minds very satisfactory. The text was easily read, not quite so legible perhaps as the text of a paper fresh from the press, but certainly much more legible than the text of a paper that had been subjected to light and air for any considerable length of time. The thickness of individual sheets was one-thousandth of an inch greater than the thickness of untreated sheets, making the treated volume when rebound about half an inch thicker than the original volume.

Mechanically the experiment was a success. We were, however, forced to cease our efforts at this point because of the lack of money. Our estimate was that the expense of treating papers in this way amounted to about $35.00 a volume, or $420 a year for an ordinary morning daily bound a month to a volume, twelve months to the year; the cost of treating with silk would have been about treble. We estimated that we had about a thousand back volumes needing repair, and that a conservative estimate of our output would be about 15 per month, 180 per year.

The Trustees felt that this expense would be too much for the Library to consider, and at the present moment a committee of the Trustees is conferring with local publishers in the hope of getting from them a special edition of their papers printed for the Library use on a good quality of wood paper if not on a paper of pure rag stock. The experiment of the Brooklyn *Eagle* along this line in 1913 you all doubtless recall. The *Eagle,* if my memory is correct, had subscriptions from fourteen libraries for its special edition printed on paper con-

taining 75 per cent of rag stock at $15.00, giving a credit account of $210.00; the cost of the paper was $2367, which gave the *Eagle* a loss of $2157 for paper stock alone, leaving entirely out of consideration the charges for extra labor involved.

To assure ourselves that we were not neglecting the experience of some other library that had faced this problem and solved it successfully, we sent a circular letter to twelve American libraries that had important files of newspapers, asking first what they had done to protect their bound volumes and second whether they had any comments to make on our experience. Their replies were unanimous; all were troubled by the condition of their volumes and all felt the Japanese tissue treatment was promising but forbiddingly expensive.

And what is the result? Little or nothing at present, so far as action is concerned. At present the New York Public Library believes that the use of Japanese tissue offers a promising solution of the problem of preservation of back files. The expense of this method—the cheapest, however, as well as the safest, of all considered by us—has prevented our adoption of it. To lighten the burden, one friend has suggested that the local libraries join with us in sharing the expense; as they are at little or no expense for current subscriptions or for preservation of bound files, this might seem an altruistic and commendable cooperation. I fear, however, that if the opportunity were offered them, they would all reply that the present tension of their budgets compelled them to add to their grateful thanks for the invitation their sincere regrets at inability to accept.

Would the local papers care to insure permanent preservation of their files by cooperating with the Library in the enterprise? We have sent out no invitations, but the replies to tentative suggestions along this line made to newspaper men have not been encouraging. Some hardened cynics have assumed to marvel that we should want to preserve a thing so fleeting, ephemeral, evanescent as the newspaper of these days; but I fear the gentlemen who talk thus now would protest promptly and vigorously if we accepted their suggestion and sent them away unhelped when they called to look at last year's file and were told it had been destroyed.

Other newspaper men have replied that their main interest was in their own office files, that their "morgues" contained

all that was important—to them—in the issues of other papers, that these two sources would serve their time and their needs, and that posterity and successors might properly grumble if no problems were left them to struggle with.

Others have intimated that newspapers were all losing ventures anyway, that none of them—no, not one—made any money, and that to ask them for an additional outlay of any kind that bore no promise of certain and immediate financial return was a waste of breath and effort.

Still another suggestion is that the libraries have the paper mills make for them a stock of paper suitable for newspaper presses, made according to specifications that will furnish a lasting stock; one or more newspapers then to be told that this paper will be furnished them free if they will print on it for library use a small run of their latest edition to be bound by the subscribing libraries. Papers so printed will be sure of preservation, the others must take their chance—a decidedly small chance.

But what of the papers issued between the '80's of the last century and the date of this improvement? Do you, as teachers of journalism and trainers of newspaper men, need them, care for them? Will your successors need them? Can they get along without them when our present day stock has been read to pieces? If they can, then why attempt to preserve these volumes even for the few short years that now seem granted them? If they cannot, what do you recommend as proper steps for preservation?

SUPPLYING OF CURRENT DAILY NEWSPAPERS IN FREE LIBRARY READING ROOMS

A symposium under this subject was held in 1894, at the conference of the American Library Association at Lake Placid. The first of these articles, and the only one reproduced here, was by Dr. Albert W. Whelpley, Librarian of the Public Library of Cincinnati. Dr. Whelpley was born in New York City, October 29, 1831. For many years he was connected with printing and publishing houses, and during the Civil War served in the 137th Ohio Volunteer Infantry. In 1886 he became librarian of the Cincinnati Public Library, which position he retained until his death, February 19, 1900. To his library activities, Dr. Whelpley added a great interest in dramatics and in charity.

I submit the following, in response to the invitation to state my views on this subject:

1. Do the people who are attracted to a library by the current daily newspapers kept on file, ever read anything else?

Many of them do not. But the public library is a democratic institution, and it is a blessing that it can supply not only the wants of the readers of books, but also of those who desire to read and consult newspapers. A public library has its mission to fulfil for such citizens as care to use it—and they can be divided into classes and masses. If the latter want newspapers to read, at the expense of the city, there are very legitimate reasons why the library should keep them on file.

2. Are they not, for the most part, of a vagrant and mal-odorous class, whose presence in the reading-room repels many who would receive more benefit from it?

Possibly so. But if the masses (sometimes, in political language, called "the great unwashed"), mal-odorous though they

may be, take the advantages provided in the newspaper reading-rooms, and are contented, nay eager to read, it shows there is hope for them, and that they may still rise to heights of cleanliness. If there were *no* newspaper reading-rooms, then this objectionable class could not *repel* many who would receive more benefit from its use. As previously said, the library is for the general public, and it can hardly afford to be a respecter of persons. I take it as a fundamentally wrong idea that a public library should be the aristocratic institution of the community, where *only* the well-born, the well-bred and the well-endowed, with both culture and wealth are wanted. On the contrary, while these are welcome (and are in the majority in the consultation-rooms), yet it is in its broadest sense an institution for the betterment and the education of that class which contains so many who come under the term mal-odorous.

3. If the greater part of the contents of the daily newspapers most in demand was put between book-covers, would any library think of buying it, to place it in circulation?

Newspapers are current literature. They tell of the things people are doing and thinking *to-day,* and that are to the men of to-day all-important. That a library would not care to have between book-covers what goes mostly to make up a newspaper, is no reflection on the newspaper or its mission. The newspaper was not made to be put in a book. It is made to be read to-day, and to be thrown aside tomorrow.

Books are not everything to the ordinary reader. The man who wishes to know how best to cast his vote at the coming election, or who desires to inform himself on the right or wrong of the great industrial battles that agitate our commonwealths, cannot be informed by reading the Commentaries of Caesar, or the romances of Walter Scott. The newspaper, with its floods of light on current affairs, is the thing for him; and if the student is to be able in the library carefully to study out politics in the time of Jefferson, or the beginnings of the science of sociology, why cannot the every-day man study in the newspaper the modern phases of these old things?

4. Considering the function of the public library as an educational institution, are there good and sufficient reasons for making it a purveyor of daily newspaper reading?

Newspapers are educational factors. We boast about the

intelligence of the American people. If they are in advance of other people, may it not be attributed to the general reading of newspapers? If this is admitted, it seems that there is sufficient reason for furnishing them from public libraries. And where one book is read, are not thousands of papers consulted?

5. So far as concerns the business need in a community for some collection of current newspapers from many cities, should not that be met by a Board of Trade, or other commercial organization, rather than by the public library?

Boards of Trade, or commercial bodies, are always close corporations. In the nature of their organization they could not meet the needs of the men who read and consult papers in the public library. In this city a great many of the merchants, lawyers and professional men use the news-room because it is theirs by right to use. They come regularly to see some particular paper and never complain of the apparently idle class who also frequent the reading-rooms in great numbers—coming and going at all hours.

But put to any of these frequenters the question if a Board of Trade could successfully run a public reading-room, and you would get a negative answer. The well-informed would tell you, that in this city, with a population near to half a million, only 2,000 have access to the papers in the Chamber of Commerce, or the Board of Trade; and this can only fill the needs of a limited class. There is nothing democratic about these organizations—they are trade organizations—while the public library is free to all, and its use is evidenced by the presence of nearly half a million readers yearly.

6. Is not the duty of the library in this matter done when it carefully preserves files of local daily journals, with possibly some others, and binds them for reference?

In a great city, where there are many strangers coming and going, and where people have many interests outside of their own community, bound files of local papers, while essential as matters of record, would be no good substitute for a newspaper reading-room. That has its place, and its sphere. It is, in Cincinnati at least, always crowded, and the time has passed when it could be abolished.

There was a necessity for the reading-room in the public library—there will not come a time when it can be done away with without sensibly feeling the loss. The library would be doing only a half duty in binding its local files.

ART AND THE LIBRARY

Libraries in this day, we all know, are quite "full of a number of things" which appear to be but distantly related to books; they are cherished primarily for illustrative purposes and they may be and are used in connection with books. In general these items shine at exhibitions and in so doing not infrequently call attention to the library's conceded legitimate wares. Exhibits are to all intents and purposes library advertising, despite the information disseminated gratis. A loan of paintings to the library not only attracts visitors to the library building,—it enlivens the circulation of art books; again a display of books upon any chosen subject usually serves as an introduction to forgotton or little suspected contents of the institution.

Dr. Melvil Dewey has said "Wherever pictures carry either information or inspiration easier, quicker or cheaper than books, they will take their place and be paid for from the same funds." He also said, in speaking of museums, "These will be recognized as an integral part of both large and small libraries, for consulting a museum is really 'reading' natural language instead of conventional and arbitrary forms of our types." (*The Library Journal,* March, 1901).

ART MUSEUMS AND THEIR CONNECTION WITH PUBLIC LIBRARIES

Curiously enough this article, very slightly abridged at this time, makes scarcely any reference to libraries. As propaganda for art museums it is eminently satisfactory. To Professor Frieze the library appeared an elder but related educational institution having a well-established roof. He frankly suggested a union of libraries and museums on the ground of economy, as a convenience to the community, and evidently that each might serve as an advertisement of the other—he did not venture such an expression precisely.

That the library might supply the literature of art and thus work in union with the museum, he in no manner intimated, but popular conception at the time of writing little associated books with matters of art interest, either general or practical. There is, nevertheless, in all of this, a somewhat hidden bit of library history to be noted. A general awakening art interest, at first linked in the public mind solely with art museums, led almost immediately to the development of popular art collections in libraries and to a united effort on the part of libraries and museums to contribute to the appreciation and cultivation of things beautiful in the community.

Professor Henry Simmons Frieze was born in Boston, Massachusetts, September 15, 1817; graduated from Brown University in 1841; for four years was instructor in the university and for nine years Latin principal in the university grammar-school. From 1854 until his death at Ann Arbor, Michigan, December 7, 1889, he was professor of the Latin language and literature at the University of Michigan. During two years of this

time he was acting president of the university and was largely instrumental in opening the university to women. For twenty years he was organist of the university and he was actively interested in all art and music matters. He contributed many articles to periodicals, and among his other published writings an edition of Virgil's *Aeneid* appears.

What Has Already Been Done

The collection of paintings and statuary connected with the Library of the Boston Athenæum has for many years formed one of the principal attractions of that city, and has been a source of instruction and improvement both to the inhabitants and to thousands of visitors from abroad. It has been the school in which many American artists have received their first impulses and their earliest inspirations.

The writer of this article owes his first impressions of the power of painting and sculpture to his occasional visits in early life to this gallery; where the Apollo, the Laocoön and the Diana first opened his mind to the wonders of ancient sculpture, and the Cleopatra of Guido, the Flora of Titian and the masterpieces of Washington Allston, because indelibly fixed in his memory. Many an American traveler, while enjoying the lavish wealth of ancient and modern art displayed in the great galleries of Europe—absorbing, as they do, the greater part of the tourist's time, and contributing more than anything else to the pleasure of travel—looks back with gratitude to the comparatively small and humble art museum of the Boston Athenæum as the training school to which he owes in a great degree his power to appreciate the rich treasures of sculpture and painting in the Old World.

Not that other collections, or occasional exhibitions of a kindred character in other cities, especially in New York, Philadelphia, Cincinnati and Chicago, have not also done much for the improvement of our national taste; but the gallery of the Boston Athenæum was the earliest American collection of works of art designed to form a permanent exhibition possessing a high degree of excellence. It is also the only art museum in our country connected with a public library; and on this account claims particular notice in an article on this subject.

We Are Behind Other Countries In Art Education

It is a matter of surprise that the idea of establishing museums of art, whether or not in connection with public libraries, has not been adopted more generally by the cities of our land; or, at least, by private corporations of citizens. We entertain a just pride in the excellence of our popular education, especially as compared with the state of popular education in England. During the last decade, however, England has been making rapid progress in educational work of every kind, and especially in opening to her youth of every class and rank facilities for the study of art. In this direction she is decidedly in advance of us. She has opened museums of industrial and fine art in connection with free libraries as a new and legitimate instrumentality for educating and elevating the people. Already the beneficial effects of this movement are perceptible, not only in the improved tastes and manners of the large numbers who visit the museums and libraries for the purposes of study, reading and recreation, but also in the improved training of young persons for the arts and trades.

They Subserve The National Industries

For this subject has also its economical aspect; and the growing superiority of continental manufactures, especially of those fabrics whose value depends largely on excellence in design acquired by the workmen of the continental nations in their schools of art and design, has awakened England to the importance of opening similar opportunities to her youth, and of thus affording to her manufacturers the means of competing successfully with France, Germany and Switzerland. As an illustration of the estimate put by some communities on the practical and economical value of art study the example of the Swiss canton of Berne may be cited. In this canton the art of carving in wood is recognized as a branch of national industry, and is accordingly fostered by the public authorities. Thus, such of the youth as exhibit remarkable gifts for art are educated at the public expense in schools of design either at home or abroad; and thus the greatest possible amount of taste and skill is acquired by the inhabitants of the Bernese mountains and valleys for the production of those tasteful works in wood carving, those elegant articles of furniture, figures of

animals and artistic ornaments in wood, which have made their way throughout the world, and which yield no small return to the ingenious skill of these secluded mountaineers.

No argument, indeed, should be needed at the present day to prove that æsthetic culture, at least to some extent, that some degree of development in the way of artistic taste and skill, is necessary to the progress and perfection even of the industrial arts. Not only the builder and the engineer, but the mechanic, the calico printer, modelers, designers, workmen of almost every kind, are better prepared for good and successful work by some acquaintance either with the principles of art or with works of art.

And so, a due regard even to the material interests of the nation, and to the successful prosecution of our national industries, should awaken in every community a lively interest on this subject. We should not rest contented with a state of culture in this direction inferior to that which has been attained by England, and far inferior to that enjoyed by some of the nations of the Continent.

The National Architecture Would Be Improved

Among the most direct advantages to be expected from the founding of popular museums of art, is the improvement of the national taste in architecture and architectural decoration. And certainly there is nothing in our external civilization which more emphatically calls for improvement. It is a frequent criticism, and altogether too just, that many of our professed architects, some would say a majority of them, are imperfectly acquainted both with the principles of construction and of architectural propriety. If the buildings which are erected according to their plans do not fall upon our heads, they will stand too often as unsightly monuments of a vicious taste. But so long as the people at large remain without the means of art culture and of æsthetic development; without access to those forms of true symmetry and beauty, and those models of excellence in every art which it is the aim of a museum to bring together, there will be no demand or vocation for the genuine architect; because the people, that is the employers, will in general determine the style of their dwellings and public buildings, and will accept only the designs which square with their

own tastes. Corporations and building committees do not, on the whole, exhibit a judgment superior to that of the community which they represent. The architect, therefore, must often modify his design to meet their requirements. As a rule he can carry out no plan which rises above the level of their intelligence. Hence, in the too general lack of the right kind of knowledge, and of the correct standard of taste, almost every village and city is disfigured more or less with architectural malformations. Hence, our "Carpenter's Gothic," "Carpenter's Doric," and our crude combinations of Romanesque and Byzantine, and Greek and Gothic; and hence the nondescript designs, consisting of incongruous reminiscences of all styles, foisted upon us as "original" American architecture, which, perhaps, in truth it may be called. A more correct taste, however, is beginning to make its way, though it is still in advance of the times. Immense sums are still expended upon piles of brick, iron, stone, stucco and wood, which have absolutely no architectural character but that which is akin to the meretricious rococo style of two centuries ago; structures which, if they escape the fire, will be looked upon hereafter as painful deformities, though, perhaps, too costly to be pulled down. They abound in incongruous members, false combinations, inapposite decorations, multiplied and jumbled together for the sake of vicious display and foolish expense. Millions have been thrown away in this vulgar parade of costly building; mostly, however, in the direction of domestic architecture, for excessive outlay on public buildings is not in general the tendency of our times. We have not yet reached the period when the patriotism of citizens will lead them to be more ambitious for the sumptuousness of civic buildings than of their private dwellings.

Now the correction of such errors of judgment is to be found in a more general cultivation of art. Men of genius should find in the universities and polytechnic schools of the country every needful help to a complete education in the principles of architecture and of the other arts which are inseparable from it. Then the taste of the public must be cultivated in the same direction, though not necessarily to the same degree, by the employment of kindred means. Otherwise, well educated architects will find little employment, will have but little influence, and will be set aside for those of superficial attainments, whose

ideas will be more in harmony with those of the community.

It was the cultivating influence of such men of true art as Adam Craft, Peter Fisher and Albrecht Dürer, which led the citizens of old Nuremberg to adopt that simple, elegant and substantial domestic architecture, which has been lately reproduced in the residences of the new and beautiful Marien street of the modern part of that interesting city. This old architecture, so truthful, so free from sham, and from flashy display, has been adopted for the new city because none has been found so appropriate to the place, and nothing in itself superior, if equal.

If we are to have types of architecture truly original and American, and worthy of our country, and destined to endure, they are to grow up in various localities, under the influence of the peculiar circumstances of the place, its climate, its native material and particular wants; all controlled by the tastes both of architects and communities thoroughly imbued with the principles of genuine art.

But while economical considerations would of themselves justify the founding of art museums for the benefit of the public at the public expense, these are by no means the only arguments in favor of their establishment.

Innocent And Improving Recreation

Most of our principal cities are laying out large sums on parks and pleasure grounds, for the purpose of affording better opportunities to their crowded populations for healthful recreation and enjoyment. And here, too, a large share of attention is most properly bestowed on art in the direction of landscape gardening. The gratification of the eye and of the æsthetic sense here also is not neglected. But all this expenditure is lost to most of the people for one-half of the year on account of our long winters. Yet if the principle of providing at the public expense for the innocent recreation of the citizens is recognized as correct, some elevating means of enjoyment should be afforded for the winter as well as for the summer months. What an unfailing resource is the Louvre or the London gallery in the hours when recreation is needed, and when an inclement sky forbids all out-door enjoyment! Such a resource, no matter though it be on a smaller scale, is within the reach of every considerable city in our land.

Education And Refining Influence

But above all, there is the educational advantage. We are willing to be taxed for the support of common schools; some states tax themselves for universities; almost every city is taxed for one or more high schools, and many for the support of public libraries. But the same mind that finds its aliment in schools and books, needs also for one of its best faculties the nutriment afforded by the creations of the artist. Without this aid that faculty remains dormant. Its power to enhance the value of individual and social life is lost. Now, can any just reason be given why the æsthetic faculty should be left out of our plans for public and popular education, why money should be expended for instructive books, and not also for instructive and elevating works of art?

Feasibility of Founding Art Museums in the Larger Towns

Many, perhaps most of our citizens, will at first give but little heed to the idea of public and free museums of art, partly because the idea is new, or at least foreign, and partly because it will seem impracticable. But when it shall be understood how easily the project can be realized; with what comparative facility and at what moderate expense the objects necessary for an interesting and very complete museum can be obtained, we may hope that many, if not all, of our principal cities will lay the foundations of such collections.

Examples of Museums Consisting of Copies of Art Works

Some of the most interesting museums in the world, some of those most valuable at once for the artist, the scholar and the tourist, consist mainly of copies; copies, made in plaster or other material, of the great masterpieces of statuary, and well executed copies of the great painters. To these are sometimes added collections of engravings and photographs. As examples of such, I may point to the new museum of Berlin, the large museum of statuary and painting at the Sydenham palace, and the fine gallery of copies of the old masters from every part of Europe gathered together in the Exposition Building in Paris.

Inexpensive, If Established By City Governments

Now, for any of our cities containing fifty thousand inhabitants, I might say even twenty-five thousand, it would require

an addition to the school tax scarcely appreciable, to raise the small amount of money necessary for the nucleus or first beginnings of a gallery of this kind; and an annual outlay still smaller would secure its growth and completion. Such an institution once established in any place would gradually accumulate, by donation and otherwise, original works of art as well as copies; and it would also in many cases become the depository of historical, archæological and ethnographical objects. Such has been the result in the few experiments of this kind which have already been tried in our own land.

Could Be Established By Voluntary Associations

Even independently of any municipal action in aid of such objects, it would seem to be one of the most attractive and useful enterprises for the general good which could be presented to the public spirit and local patriotism of the wealthier class of citizens. How easily and with how little inconvenience to themselves, financially, could men of means by organized effort promote this most desirable object. They would thus become public benefactors and would greatly increase the attractiveness of the places in which they reside. They would supply one of the most painful deficiencies of our American cities—the want of what we may call internal or intellectual interest. For a city like most of those of our country, without scientific museums and treasures of art, however beautiful externally, contains but little to interest and detain the stranger. In an hour or two he easily takes in all that is worth seeing in the way of public and private buildings, and passes on his way without any disposition to make a second visit. He finds no food for the mind; nothing to make a lasting and pleasing impression upon his memory. Every one experiences this baldness of American cities as compared with European. It arises, of course, in part, from the lack of old historical associations; but certainly in no small degree from the want of scientific and art collections.

Economy of Connecting Museums and Libraries

The propriety of connecting such museums, if established at all, with public libraries, is too obvious to need any lengthy discussion. Their aims are kindred, indeed identical. Both are

designed to promote the intellectual culture of the people. Their association under one roof would naturally follow from their internal relation. It is evident, too, that the placing of the museum and library in one building would subserve the public convenience by saving time and trouble to visitors; and that thus both would be much more frequented than if they were situated in separate localities; and so both would accomplish much more effectually the purposes of their institution.

Considerations of economy also favor this connection. A library building can be easily planned in such a manner that an upper floor, admirably lighted for galleries of painting and statuary, can be made available for this purpose, at very little additional expense. At the same time the current expenses of library and museum, for obvious reasons, would be considerably less when combined than if established in different localities.

Where Art Works Can Be Obtained, And At What Cost

I add a few examples of the prices for which certain works of art can be purchased, in order to illustrate the feasibility, in a financial point of view, of founding such art collections as are here advocated. Among the casts of statuary first placed in the new museum of Berlin, and forming the nucleus of that collection, are the copies of the famous statues from the ancient temple of Ægina, now in the Glyptothek at Munich. These groups may be said to form the beginning of Grecian sculpture in its higher development. The figures, which are of the size of life, are fifteen in number. Exquisitely finished copies of these can now be had from the Royal Polytechnic School at Munich, more perfect than those in the Berlin Museum, at $65. The Ilioneus, the best statue in the Glyptothek, is copied for $28. Other important works can be obtained from the same department of the Munich Polytechnic School at equally moderate prices. At the Moulage, in the Museum of the Louvre at Paris, the Apollo Belvedere, copied with great exactness, is sold for $30; the Augustus robed, for $24; the famous Aristides of the Naples Museum, at the same price; the colossal group of Laocoön and his sons, for $80. At this establishment, indeed, very many of the most valuable statues and groups, ancient and modern, can be obtained at similar rates. Admirable copies in bronze, mostly reductions of different sizes, approved by the

best artists of Europe, can be obtained from the well known works of F. Barbedienne in Paris. The prices are moderate for this material. The Venus of Milo, of half the original size, costs $140; other figures in proportion.

Then the reductions made in plaster, terra cotta and other material, exceedingly perfect, and quite inexpensive, afford a good opportunity for supplementing a collection which cannot at first be made complete with copies of the full size. Such reduced copies, as well as busts of the life size, made under the sanction of the French National School of Fine Art, can be obtained at very reasonable prices from A. Desachy, who superintends the work of casting for the Academy of Fine Arts, the average cost of busts of historical personages being $3; that of reductions of half the life size, about the same. At the same institution are to be found also copies of statues of the original size, at prices corresponding to those at the Louvre. The small reductions in terra cotta, mostly of classical statuary, made at Naples by Giovanni Mollica, are exceedingly perfect. The entire collection embraces nearly one hundred and fifty pieces, consisting of groups, statues and busts. Properly arranged in cases, they form a very valuable and attractive addition to any museum, and are useful even to artists. The statues have an average height of one foot. The material is durable, and the color is very agreeable to the eye. The cost of the entire collection is about $185.

At Copenhagen, at the establishment of Bing & Gröndahl, reductions of all the works of Thorwaldsen on a similar scale to that of the terra cottas above mentioned, but cast in biscuit, an exceedingly hard and durable material, and capable of very delicate finish, can be obtained at prices quite as reasonable for the relative cost of the material and labor; for example, the group of figures on the pediment of the church of St. John the Baptist is sold at about $55, and the celebrated group of Christ and the Apostles, at $72.

Copies of paintings exactly representing the originals, in oil colors, are, of course, more expensive. Good artists will furnish copies of most of the masterpieces in the galleries of Florence, containing one figure of the life size, at about $100, and others at proportionate rates.

I need not add here any particulars as to the importance of engravings and photographs; their relative cheapness, and

the unlimited facilities they afford for bringing together correct and beautiful representations of works of art in all its departments, and of supplementing the galleries of museums which may not possess the means of purchasing many expensive productions.

MAKING ART POPULAR THROUGH THE LIBRARY

These excerpts are taken from an article by Miss Mary McEachin Powell, designed as an informal but detailed report of work accomplished by the Art Department of the St. Louis Public Library, one which has served as an invitation to the greater public to acquaint itself with resources near at hand, yet awaiting more extensive use.

To libraries, large or small, it suggests numberless ways by which they may augment collections of illustrative material and the almost limitless applications that should be made of them. The very processes of collecting and arranging masses of art miscellany rarely fail to suggest its use or the manner of fitting these items to local needs advantageously.

This article is one of the first to stress the library's province as a stimulator of art and its first-aid. Local references of a somewhat intimate nature and its length make severe cutting necessary at this time.

Miss Powell, at present supervisor of education in the St. Louis City Art Museum, was connected with the St. Louis Public Library from 1904 to 1923, and was for ten years in charge of the Art Department.

The Art Department of a public library usually consists of books and prints on art subjects—painting, sculpture, architecture, music and the like. Sometimes it may include also collections of paintings of variable merit that have been presented to the library by interested citizens. Usually the paintings are hung in a gallery, as in a museum, and the books on art are gathered together in a room by themselves. There is no occasion for those who are using the books to look at the pictures, and those who go to the gallery probably never visit the art-book room.

The Library contains more books on architecture, painting and the industrial arts than on other art subjects, which indicates a greater demand for books in these classes. There are good working collections on many other subjects also, such as photography, music, costume and sculpture.

The immediate collection of art books is supplemented in many ways by the whole stock of the Library.

. . .

The constantly growing picture collection in the Art Department is of great importance in its work. It consists not only of reproductions of works of art, but of pictures of all kinds and descriptions that will be helpful in any way whatever.

. . .

Prints are selected from any source that presents itself. The reproductions are not always good, but they help to give an idea of the work of painters and sculptors, or of objects of art. In this way also a record of local artists, and of those who are not well known, is kept when information about them cannot be found in books.

The pictures, mounted and unmounted, are placed in large manilla envelopes and arranged alphabetically under subject or artist in vertical filing cabinets. By this means they do not have to be catalogued, and they form their own index.

Under this head may also be mentioned book covers, that is, the paper binding-cases of the publishers. When the books are catalogued, these paper covers are saved and sent in bundles to the Art Department, where they are examined and about five out of fifty are kept for various purposes—book-cover designs, costumes, portraits and pictures of places, flowers and animals. When the design is the thing wanted, as is usually the case, the unnecessary part is cut away and the design, usually one side and the back edge, is mounted on heavy manilla paper.

The picture collection is greatly enriched each year by illustrations from periodicals that are not needed for binding. Many reproductions of paintings, sculpture, architecture, engravings and etchings are culled from these. From magazines, also, and from discarded books there has been gathered together an interesting collection of the work of contemporary illustrators, well known and otherwise. This file is used in many ways—to trace the alteration of styles; to study the individuality of

the illustrator; for character study, by students in drawing; for costume study, or for that of manners and customs; for examples of process work, such as pen-and-ink rendering, wash drawings, woodcuts, color printing and other processes; and finally for color schemes and composition.

In connection with the illustrations, and from the same sources, the Library collects advertisements. A sharp watch is kept for signed commercial pictures. Otho Cushing, Rose O'Neill, Jessie Wilcox Smith, Charles Winter, Louis Fancher, Edward Penfield, Olive Rush, George Gibbs, Frank Reynolds, Coles Phillips and Franklin Booth are some of the names that add interest and distinction to this collection of advertising art.

In clipping magazines, and books, too, wherever there may appear an initial letter, or an interesting or unusual example of hand printing, these have been taken out and filed, making a collection of great value.

A good series of costume designs has been assembled in the same manner as the illustrations. The daily use of the series has been so great that when kept in cases it was constantly in process of refiling. Then, too, its rapid growth caused a crowding of the filing cases. The mounts have therefore been labelled and perforated and placed alphabetically in binders, forming loose-leaf scrapbooks. They now occupy five large volumes and are shelved with the works on costume. They may be easily consulted at any time, and may be taken out of the binders and circulated, without congesting the filing system.

In like manner, by means of the loose-leaf scrapbooks, the overflow picture collection may be taken care of when the filing space becomes too crowded.

The Library has a large collection of cartoons clipped from newspapers throughout the country. Representative work of various cartoonists may be seen at a moment's notice by consulting the file.

Picture post-cards are also a part of the print collection, and many pictures, too small for the regular manilla mounts, are pasted on post-card mounts and filed with the collection in special trays.

. . .

Closely related to the print collection is the collection of lantern slides. Until the past year the Library had no slides that could be circulated among its borrowers, although slides

were being constantly made for the various art study clubs of the city from books in the Library. There was thus often duplication of work by clubs who were studying the same subjects. To prevent this needless effort and expense, and also to increase the usefulness of the Library, a plan was formed to deposit the slides of the different clubs at the Library, and allow them to circulate freely among those who need them.

. . .

On matters relating to art alone, a tremendous amount of advertising matter may be had for the asking. Any library that has no fund for the purchase of books on art, may begin a very respectable art collection by soliciting free material.

The periodicals are filled with advertisements ending, "Catalogue sent on request." Some magazines have sections of "Industrial Information," "Chronicle and Comment" and the like, which list free descriptive booklets and catalogues with brief comments. In the sections devoted to book reviews, space is often given to advertising material, either because of its excellence as such, or on account of its subject matter.

From the florists have come a large number of flower catalogues which have greatly enlarged the picture collection. From railroad offices and steamship companies have been obtained fine examples of advertising booklets, posters, pictures of places, reproductions of paintings and a great many costume pictures.

. . .

Catalogues of furniture, house furnishings, light fixtures, ornamental bronze and iron work, greenhouses, gardens and garden furniture, pergolas, terra-cotta and brick work, fireplaces and accessories, photographic materials, stained glass windows, oriental rugs, Japanese prints, pottery, architectural ornament and details, bells and other subjects have found a definite and useful place in the art collection.

Samples of cloth are obtained from any possible source to show weaving and design. Of course examples of historic weaves are difficult to get and usually expensive, but many pieces of this sort are given to the Library if the proper persons can be interested. A large amount of modern textile samples can be obtained by writing to the mills for manufacturers' samples. Examples of this sort, though not very good in color and design, will be quite valuable "a hundred years from now." If the mills are selected with discrimination

a beautiful and representative textile collection may be built up in a short time at practically no cost.

Under free materials may be mentioned pictures clipped from magazines and discarded books, the only expense connected with them being the time spent in selecting and arranging them. Postcards are also included in this class. They are, in the main, given to the Library by members of the staff and the general public.

. . .

Exhibitions are an important factor in this work. They attract attention; and many persons who come to the Library for books will stay to look at the pictures. Gradually these persons will find out the meaning of what they see. On the other hand, the work of the Library is thus brought to the notice of those who come to see the exhibitions but would not otherwise be drawn to the place.

A series of exhibitions is held in the Art Room. They are not arranged at the expense of the regular work or in place of it, but rather in addition to it. Some large exhibition, of either local or national interest, is displayed each month; and these are supplemented by smaller exhibitions to show the resources of the art collection.

Exhibitions are obtained from many sources—individuals, collectors, societies, institutions, the American Federation of Arts and the United States Government.

. . .

The exhibits of posters, newspaper art, illustrations and cartoons seemed to attract a large number of commercial artists, teachers and students. The cartoons appealed to everyone, the reason being, perhaps, that a cartoon must tell a complete story, which is what people like.

. . .

Any artistic work that goes on in the city is at once reflected in the Library's Art Department, from musical teas and fancy dress balls to the decoration of churches and cathedrals.

Artists come to see what their contemporaries are doing, to look up material for lectures, and to get suggestions from the great source books for costuming, staging and arranging local festivals or pageants.

. . .

The influence of the art books may be seen in all parts of the city, in the work of architects and decorators. It is generally the custom among these workers, when about to design a building or a decoration in some particular style, to refresh their memories by going over all possible material for that period, from source books to modern interpretations, in order to get the proper feeling for its expression. Then they can make their designs with correct application of details.

. . .

The Art Department should be considered as a place of ideas. New arrangements and combinations can be made up of parts which have been studied, and there will be new invention and inspiration for every form of art. Imagination, inspiration and all the qualities that make for art are the outcome of study.

'TWIXT LIBRARY AND MUSEUM

Dr. Arthur Elmore Bostwick in the following articles presents the library's claim to illustrative material and the advantages to be derived from such possessions. In this galaxy should be noted postcards, photographs and programs, posters, postage-stamps and plates.

Boundary regions are always interesting. Close to the line separating two regions of fact or of thought cluster the examples that fascinate us. This is true especially of the library and the museum. It is my belief that either is justified in overstepping the boundary that divides the two, whenever such an act supplies an omission and does not duplicate. In other words, there is a boundary region between library and museum that may be occupied by either, but should not be occupied by both.

I shall try briefly to define this region and indicate how the library may occupy parts of it without legitimate criticism when the necessity arises.

Descriptive and illustrative material is to be found in both library and museum. Speaking generally, the former is of primary importance in the library and the latter in the museum. Many books consist of descriptive text alone, without pictures or diagrams, and on the other hand a museum might contain specimens without labels, although they would not be of much use. In general, text with illustrations belongs in a library and specimens with labels in a museum. The mere statement of the distinction as it has just been given, however, shows that it may be very difficult to draw a line between the two kinds of collections. A museum has been defined as "a collection of good labels accompanied by illustrative specimens." Here the value of the descriptive text is emphasized, even in the museum collection. When descriptive treatises are shelved in connection with the specimens, as in some modern museums, we have an expansion of the label into the book; and the museum, in this one particular at least, crosses the dividing line between it and the library. No one would blame it for so doing.

Similarly the library may occasionally cross the line in the other direction without incurring blame. Let me repeat that both library and museum may contain descriptive and explanatory text and illustrative material. In the museum the text is usually in the form of labels, attached to the specimens, and there are generally material objects. In the library the text is in book form and the "specimens," if we may so call them, are plates bound into the book.

The first step taken by the library toward the line that separates it from the museum is when the plates, instead of being bound into a book, are kept separately in a portfolio, the accompanying text, corresponding to the "labels" of museum collections, may be on the same sheet as the plates (often on the reverse side) or on separate sheets, which may be bound into a book even when the plates are separate.

Separate plates are very convenient, both for reference use and for exhibition. They are, of course, more easily lost or stolen. The value of exhibitions of plates is so highly estimated by some librarians that they are breaking up valuable volumes so that the plates may be used separately. This is a second step toward the museum use of the library. I have heard a well-known librarian assert that if permitted by his Board he would dismember every art book in his library, in this way. Most of us, especially if we are interested in the exhibition side of library work—which is distinctly a museum side—will be inclined to sympathize with him.

Another, and I should call it a still further, step toward the museum region, is taken when we deliberately create specimens by clipping and mounting. Most libraries are now doing this freely, both for reference work and for circulation. In many cases there are no separate labels here except a brief descriptive title, the material being classified according to its subject or its intended use. The similarity to the school museum or circulating museum—a very recent development of museum work—is striking. In this field the library has been ahead of the regular museums. The material clipped and mounted is usually book material—largely plates from books, magazines or papers. There is much other material that can be so mounted and used. The similarity of collection, treatment and use may be so close that the passage here from the picture to the object seems almost negligible; yet many persons apparently con-

sider that here we must draw the definite boundary line between the collections of the library and those of the museum. They would say for instance that it is perfectly legitimate for a library to acquire, preserve and use a plate bearing a printed facsimile in natural colors, of a piece of textile goods but not a card mount bearing an actual piece of the same goods, although the two were so similar in appearance that at a little distance it would be impossible to tell the colored print from the actual piece of textile. Librarians will not be apt to attach much importance to this distinction, and those whose collections include treatises on textiles with colored plates will not hesitate to supplement them with mounted specimens of the actual textile with typewritten descriptions. Generally manufacturers are only too happy to furnish samples of their current output, and older specimens, sometimes of historical interest, can be bought from dealers. The peculiar adaptability of this kind of material to library use is a physical one, and is shared by every flat specimen that may be mounted on sheets. Instances will occur to every one. An actual flower or leaf, for example, is generally cheaper than a color production of it, and takes up little more room when mounted. A good descriptive botany with inadequate pictures may well be supplemented by a herbarium of this kind. Historical material is quite generally flat—often written or printed on card or paper—old programs, menus, railroad tickets, dance-cards, timetables, cards of admission, souvenirs of all kinds. This kind of material, often collected in scrap books, is better mounted on separate sheets, which may be kept together in binders on the loose-leaf system if desired. One of the most interesting exhibitions I ever saw was of foreign railway material—timetables, tickets, dining-car menus, etc. Many Chinese and Japanese specimens were included. A treatise on forms of railway tickets, with facsimile illustrations, would be eagerly sought by libraries; why should not the objects themselves be equally valuable? Librarians were glad to have Miss Kate Sanborn's book on old wall papers, with its realistic reproductions, but how many of them thought of the possibility of making their own books of specimens, using the papers themselves, instead of photographic facsimiles thereof?

Another point of resemblance between this kind of library material and that utilized by museums is the fact that its value

is so often a group-value—possessed by the combination of objects of a certain kind, rather than by any one in itself. For instance, a common earthenware jar designed by John Jones in the Trenton potteries may have little value, but if you add to it a thousand other earthenware jars, or a thousand pieces of any kind designed by John Jones, or a thousand other specimens made in Trenton, the collection acquires a value which far exceeds the average value of its elements multiplied by thousands. The former may be five cents—the latter five thousand dollars. In the same way an illustration by Mary Smith, clipped from a trashy story in a ten-cent magazine, has little value—zero value, perhaps. But a thousand such illustrations showing the published work of Mary Smith from the time she began until she acquired standing as an illustrator, is worth while.

It should not be necessary to tell librarians that the best way to make such a collection as this is not to search for each element by itself but to gather miscellaneous related material in quantity and then sort it. If you have a pile of slips to alphabetize, you do not go through the whole mass to pick out the A's, and then again for the B's, and so on. You sort the whole mass at once, so that while you are segregating the A's you are at the same time collecting the B's and all the rest of the alphabet. Likewise, if you want the illustration work of Jessie Wilcox Smith, for instance, you need not hunt separately for bits from her pen; you need only clip all the illustrations from magazines and papers that would be otherwise discarded. Then you sort these by the names of the illustrators, and you have at once collections not only of Miss Smith's current work but of that of dozens of other illustrators. This is applicable in a hundred other fields.

It has been said above that museum material adaptable to library use is so for physical reasons. We may go further and say that the whole difference between a library and a museum is a physical difference rather than one of either object or method. The difference is one of material and of the manner of its display, and these are conditioned by physical facts. The difference between an object and a picture of it is physical. It should not astonish us, then, that when this physical difference is abolished, as it is when the object itself is a picture, or is minimized, as when the object is flat like

the picture and resembles it closely, like a textile specimen, the boundary between the museum and the library practically disappears.

THE LIBRARY AND COMMERCIAL ART

Commercial art, at first viewed distrustfully in formal art circles, has not only established a definite place for itself, but it has stimulated a general interest in the more conventional forms of art, by educating the layman through means of attractive advertising and design, of high standard, applied to various industrial purposes.

Dr. Bostwick, at this time, draws attention to the great variety of material assembled in an art library and used by groups of illustrators in the development of their designs.

The marriage of art and commerce is one of the most difficult unions ever attempted. Each looks upon the other with a feeling akin to contempt. To say that a painter is "a commercial artist" is usually enough to put him outside the pale of fellowship with his brethren who cultivate "art for art's sake." The barons of commerce recriprocate by regarding all artists as "poor devils" and their efforts as "high-brow," until death and posthumous fame have put them into the collectible class. This mutual feeling is one of the phases of our national lack of art appreciation. It acts as both cause and effect. We instinctively think of art as something to hang on a wall or to put up in a public park. When we are told that anything is "artistic" we look for something a little queer, or plastered over with ornament. We cannot understand that there should be "art" in everything about us, and that all this means is that it should be so proportioned, formed and colored as to be pleasing to the eye and expressive of its use in our daily lives, as well as adapted to that use.

From the broadest viewpoint there is little art that is not "commercial" to some extent. The finest works of pure art have been executed on commission for a fee. The painter who can paint a picture without letting his thoughts dwell for a moment or two on what he is likely to get for it would be more

(or less) than human. The term "commercial artist," however, is usually applied to a designer connected with the regular output of some industrial plant—a manufactory of carpets or wall paper, or furniture, or to an illustrator who makes pictures for advertisements.

Most artists will acknowledge that the designing of carpets or furniture is compatible with the practice of one of the highest forms of art. The fact that ordinary designs are rarely pleasing is due to the fact that the manufacturers are unwilling to employ good designers or hurry them too much when they have them. Few, however, are willing to concede any possible art value to publicity matter. They are surely wrong. Much of this matter involves design or illustration; some of it, such as the poster, has little else. That so much of our public advertising is now pleasing to the eye, whereas fifty years ago it was all in the despicable class, is due to a slow trend of public opinion toward considering art as necessary and valuable in this branch of commerce.

Here is where the Public Library can be and often is, of service. The requirements are not great. The primary and absolutely necessary condition is the presence on the library staff of at least one assistant who has had some training in art and has not acquired the anti-commercial viewpoint—who realizes that a cigarette poster or the cover of a box of gelatin may be beautiful and fit, as well as the decoration on a millionaire's wall or the structure of a park fountain. This condition, once realized, will create all the others—the formation of the necessary collections (largely free or at little cost), to aid commercial artists and the establishment of cordial relations with these artists, with the offer of the library as a subsidiary studio and an office of consultation.

In the St. Louis Public Library we have been fortunate enough to fulfill the first condition in having Miss Mary Powell as the head of our Art Department, and all the other things have been added unto us. We have been very successful, it seems to me, in assembling material that commercial artists find useful, and in assisting them to use it in such a way as to foster a closer connection in our city between art and industry.

The importance of interested attendance cannot be overestimated. Here is the point of contact between the art col-

lection and those who are to use it. Interest cannot thrive in the presence of indifference, and we insist that the staff of our art room shall be interested in the particular things that it tries to do, of which this service to commercial art is one.

Publicity is an essential in this task, as in all others. To gain it, we make special use of exhibitions, changing them frequently to avoid stagnation. Miss Powell tells me that every exhibit in our art room (and we have upwards of 30 annually) has increased the use of books on its subject. In these exhibits, however, a still more important effect is the new thought awakened. Two comments reported recently by Miss Powell illustrate this. A man who sells rubber-goods, and who uses our room for suggestions in advertising, told her that our exhibitions had made a great change in his store. His clerks now often came, he said, during the noon hour to see our exhibits, and as a result they kept the store cleaner and in better order. They bought good prints and put them up over their desks. One clerk had even carried this new interest into his home and had communicated it to his sister. Together they were gradually acquiring good pottery, furniture and pictures, in place of "the gingerbread stuff," as he put it, that they no longer liked. The other comment was made by a man of considerable art interest who does publicity work for a bank, who said to Miss Powell: "You have no idea of the value of seeing things interesting and colorful, in doing work."

Some of our most fundamental work here is in connection with the schools, whose whole course in design we regard as a step toward that vocational guidance which will select children of artistic ability and train them for advanced industrial art courses from which they may go directly into industrial art trades. This requires interest and effort but will ultimately develop in our country an industrial art of our own.

For instance, to assist in drawing instruction in the schools we have material at hand on the following subjects:

1. For paper-cutting and work in the primary grades we use simple outline drawings and silhouettes of animals, birds, trees, and figures in action, taken chiefly from book covers and book illustrations. We have also a book on paper work, published in Vienna, too complicated for direct work with the children, but full of suggestions for teachers.

2. For pose composition, perspectives and color studies, our

large file of the work of contemporary illustrators is helpful. Since one of the sources of the illustration file is wornout books, we often have pictures of the same theme by different illustrators; for example, "The Pied Piper," "Mother Goose," "Robinson Cruscoe," and many subjects from fairy stories. Illustrations of stories familiar to the children are desirable and easily obtained.

3. For design, there is much material for those who can spare the time for sketching and tracing in the Library. But there is, also, a large collection of design pictures that circulates very freely and applies to all problems in the course. The development of design units from plants and other motifs is clearly shown, and there are many examples of space-filling from these forms. All design pictures suggest new motifs and combinations.

Our textile collection also offers many new ideas for designs and for the treatment of their applications. This is made up of actual pieces of goods mounted on card-board, showing designs, weaves and color combinations from Japan, Persia, Armenia, Turkey, Greece and other foreign countries. In addition we have books on embroidery and similar subjects containing simple, clear diagrams of stitches that may be used in applying designs to actual textiles. All color drawings are also helpful.

From the school to the shop or the business office is not a far cry where library artwork is concerned. To satisfy the demand of the commercial artist and to create a knowledge and appreciation of the worth of artistic advertising, both in the general public and in the business man, is now a large part of our work.

Often the resources of the Library are severely taxed to fill the requirements of the makers of advertisements, whose needs are more varied and difficult to satisfy than those of any other class of users. Some idea of this may be given by mentioning some of the topics in which they are interested: "How to draw for reproduction"; "Designs and suggestions for advertising booklets"; "Posters"; "Pictures of symbolic figures, such as 'Music,' 'The Dance,' 'Commerce,' 'Victory,' and the like." The Art Department collects and files all material of this sort. Its nature is further shown by quoting a few of the actual requests upon which material has been supplied: "A picture of a woman playing a harp"; "A picture of a man

on horseback trying to pick up something from the ground"; "A photographic reproduction of a field of Easter lilies"; "A picture of a man-of-war, showing the top view of the deck"; "Children going to school, including a view of the school-house"; and "An interior of a country store about forty years ago."

Pictures of birds and animals in specified positions are often wanted; for instance, one person will desire to see the "front face" of a goat, another will want the "side view" of a swan. Some one wishes a picture of a "turkey coming toward you with its tail spread out," and some one else, "a peacock, in color, walking away from you." Others will want pictures of a "foot-print of a goose," "the skeleton of a chicken," "a chicken in the act of coming out of its shell," and "a duck just as it has been shot."

Pictures of people playing tennis, rowing, boating, motoring and doing all the other things that people do, are asked for over and over again. All these must be supplied quickly. When the specified compositions are not forthcoming, material for composite pictures is nearly always available. Anything and everything that may be needed to furnish pictures and suggestions for the very definite purposes of commercial artists is conserved and made ready for use by careful indexing, clipping and subject filing, with numerous cross references. The selection is determined almost entirely by the use, and probable demand must be foreseen as accurately as possible.

Illustrations from magazines are a great help in this kind of work. They are filed as examples of process work, such as pen-and-ink sketches, wash drawings, wood-cuts and color-printing, but they are also used to furnish ideas for color schemes and compositions. From the magazines are also clipped advertisements of merit. These are arbitrarily selected, but an attempt is made to include all advertisements signed by contemporary commercial artists and illustrators, in order to preserve a fair standard. Otho Cushing, Rose O'Neill, Jessie Wilcox Smith, Charles Winter, Louis Fancher, Edward Penfield, Garth Jones, Olive Rush, Frank Reynolds, Coles Phillips and Franklin Booth are some of the names that add interest and distinction to the collection.

Picture postcards form a part of the material for the use of "Ad. men" and many pictures too small for other purposes are pasted on post-card mounts and filed with this collection.

Some of the subjects are birds, animals, costume, insects, types of houses, types of people, Indians, industries, vehicles and watercraft. The collection of poster stamps is also cared for in this way and filed in sets.

We made no attempt at first to classify advertisements and posters by subjects, but this is now being done, and within a few months those who wish to see advertisements for automobiles, beer, toothpaste, furniture textiles, silverware or whatever else they may want, may consult them easily without going through a mass of unrelated material.

Besides clippings, there is a great deal of printed publicity that comes through the mail unsolicited, and a tremendous amount that may be had for the asking. Any firm that issues a good catalog of any artistic value whatever, will see the advantage of placing it in the collection of an art library. Good posters and street-car advertisements are asked for whenever their artistic appeal is strong. Reproductions of posters are kept also and offer many useful suggestions. An interesting collection of letterheads and business cards has recently been collected from advertising firms all over the country, and book covers and booklets are gathered in from many sources. There is an advantage in having on hand at all times the best possible examples of contemporary design in graphic arts, line-drawing, color-work, examples of printing and page designs, and in making these accessible to the general public as well as to specialists.

As soon as practicable, it is our intention to collect wherever possible statistics of the cost of production of good advertising. This information will be attached to the examples at hand so that the business man may know definitely that the cost of good artistic advertising is no greater than that of poor examples, and that the returns are larger.

The material benefit of the use of our collection by commercial artists is often reported to us, and frequently the completed drawing or poster is brought in to show us how the ideas obtained here have been worked out. Sometimes, when the designs have been accepted, a sample of the completed product is presented to us for our collection.

A large amount of material was given to us recently from a convention exhibit of the Associated Advertising Clubs of the World, through the interest of local advertising men who know the work that we are doing and its benefit to the community.

In our regular schedule of exhibitions are included each year a number of displays of great benefit to the student and the practical artist. The object of this is to show our own users what is being done by commercial artists elsewhere and to awaken new interest in the field of artistic advertising.

Some of the exhibits of this nature that we have held in the Art Room are: Modern German posters lent by the Newark Museum Association; The making of a book; Photographs and plates showing processes, lent by Charles Scribner's Sons; Poster designs submitted in a competition by the students of the St. Louis School of Fine Arts; Commercial art by artists of the Ad. Club of St. Louis; Posters by Edward Penfield, Will Bradley and others, from the Library collection; Posters entered in competition for a design to advertise the 250th anniversary celebration of Newark; and artistic posters and a step by step exhibit of printed publicity, lent by the Newark Museum Association. That there is a real result in seeing what is good was recently demonstrated by the excellence of design and execution shown in a competition by St. Louis artists for a St. Louis Art League War Poster. An exhibition of the competing posters was held in the Art Department and was immensely superior to a similar competition for St. Louis artists held two years ago.

The whole collection of advertising art is used for the most part by commercial artists and by the advertising departments of business firms, so that they may direct the commercial artist in their employ. It is used also, although not so often, by the business men in whose interest the advertisements are made, besides individuals, the representatives of about fifteen commercial art firms in St. Louis.

One of the most hopeful and significant uses of the collection is in art instruction in the Public High Schools. This means that by education the public will eventually see more artistic advertising and therefore will begin to demand that which is good, so that advertisements will have to show both beauty and orderliness to attract attention and bring business.

SCIENCE AND THE LIBRARY

Mr. William P. Cutter, then librarian of the Engineering Societies Library of New York, in an article in *Special Libraries* of November, 1915, defines a technical library thus:

"A technical library is a collection of books and other material relating to the application of science to industry, and specifically to manufacturing industries, engineering and applied chemistry."

The antecedents of the technical libraries of today were inconspicuous collections or divisions of a scientific nature, comprehending, of course, pure science. The following extracts from an article by Professor Theodore Gill of the Smithsonian Institution give a somewhat discouraging picture of library resources for technical work in the year of 1876, and in marked contrast with the mass of technical literature confidently expected by investigators of the present time.

These paragraphs are from Professor Gill's article, "Scientific Libraries in the United States," published in the United States Bureau of Education's special report, *Public Libraries in the United States of America,* 1876, p. 183.

In every general library, as a matter of course, are works on science, and usually a section devoted to science or its different subdivisions. Very few, however, have collections that are of much importance; and even in libraries of quite large size (e.g., over 50,000 volumes) the student may apply in vain for many works that are the standard manuals in their departments. The rich literature involved in the publications of learned societies and other scientific periodicals also is almost wholly unrepresented. Even as a rule, judging from personal knowledge and the examination of a large number of cata-

logues, the scientific works in general libraries are, or at least have been, mostly school books, prepared in many cases by men unrecognized as scientific experts, and often far behind the dates of their title pages in information as to the status of the science. This fault has to some extent been rectified since the publication and popularity of the works of Huxley, Tyndall, Helmholtz and a few others, but is still in a large degree perceptible. Among those general libraries in which more or less attention has been paid to the selection and acquisition of scientific works may be especially mentioned the Library of Congress at Washington, (with which the Library of the Smithsonian Institution is incorporated), the Boston Public Library, the Astor Library of New York and the Peabody Institute of Baltimore. Each of these is, however, deficient in many standard works, and an active investigator who should wish to become acquainted with the literature of any subject would soon be arrested in his researches if obliged to depend on any one of them. The libraries of a few learned societies are, then, the chief sources of information, and to these the student must necessarily resort, if engaged in extensive bibliographical investigations. But the societies which can afford the requisite facilities are extremely few, and the general libraries just alluded to are far richer than most of the societies devoted to scientific subjects are in their own branches. In fact, there are considerably less than a dozen which demand special notice.

Among the most important and really indispensable works of reference for the scientific investigator, and indeed for any student who desires to become familiar with the progress of science in its several branches, are the annual volumes in which are recorded the various contributions to the literature of science during the successive years. Yet, strangely enough, they are rarely met with in our libraries, and the existence of such annual epitomes of scientific literature is known only in part, and sometimes absolutely unknown, to our librarians.

USE OF SCIENTIFIC AND TECHNICAL BOOKS

Stirred by a criticism of libraries that appeared in the *Independent,* June 15, 1905, Mr. Charles Harvey Brown, then reference librarian of the John Crerar Library, very logically batters down the claim that the library holds no bait for the earnest business man, while he points to the dependence of all serious human interests upon the wares of a library.

A sketch of Mr. Brown has appeared in Volume IV of this series, *The Library and its Organization.*

There are various phases of the use of scientific and technical books which have been discussed frequently and ably. We have heard of technical books in the small library, technical books for the workingman and even of scientific books in the children's room. But there are other uses which have been for the most part either neglected or discussed from one standpoint only. Some attention should be devoted to such subjects as the value of technical books for the more serious reference inquiries, the use of technical books as tools by the manufacturer, the journalist and the delegate of a labor union; the need of not only the latest but also the earlier editions in a large library, and the interrelation of the pure, the applied and the social sciences from the point of view of those who use a library. These are the topics which I would call to your notice.

In an editorial in the "Independent" of June 15th, 1905, we find the following statements: "Public libraries are useful to the women and children but not so much so to the men. . . . The number of men who take books out of the town library or go to it for reference is very small. There are two reasons for this: first, the men have come to think that there is nothing in the library for them, and, second, they are usually right in thinking so. Women use books as playthings; men as tools." At the time this issue of the "Independent" was received at

the John Crerar Library, there were 48 men, 2 women and no children in its reading room, notwithstanding the fact that the library has in its collection 12 shelves of cook-books and 30 shelves on domestic economy. Later we found that one of the two women was seeking information for her husband.

In spite of collections on such subjects as market gardening, bee-keeping, French poodles and costume, the use of a technical collection by women and children is very small. A technical library is primarily a library for men. Its books are of value not only to the engineer, the contractor and the mechanic; they are serviceable almost equally to the politician, the journalist, the lawyer and the college student; furthermore the value of a public library is not limited to the services rendered its visitors directly. All readers of books, magazines and newspapers are to some extent indebted to the library for the information given them. Take as a single example a recent Sunday issue of a Chicago daily of which nearly 2 pages were filled with material obtained directly from the public libraries of the city. The subjects varied from the use of cement in farm building, the latest developments in popular science, to photographs of buildings damaged by earthquakes, answers to correspondents, cooking recipes and horoscopes. One Chicago journalist spends nearly all of her time in the public libraries of the city; other reporters use them continually for reference. It is true that the articles do not always reflect credit on the source, and that in some cases we cannot find the desired picture of the most beautiful woman in the United States, or the kind of pistols used by victims of "dementia Americana"; still it is to be assumed that the "Independent" did not refer to such material.

The use of libraries by city officials is fully as varied as that by newspapers. The library enables a telephone commission not only to ascertain the capitalization of local companies and the excessive dividends, but also to study the increase or decrease in cost of materials as related to rates. Municipal ownership advocates call upon the library for material upon the much disputed question of the economy of municipal ownership; and for information as to the value of plants and the cost of replacement by the city. The library furnishes material to the Reform Club enabling it to prove that smoke prevention is possible. Even the politician uses the library to ascertain the majority in his ward in previous elections, the effect of

the increase of population upon the vote, of the ratio of foreign-born citizens and the records of the opposing candidates.

To the workingman a technical collection is often a matter of dollars and cents. For instance, a union of locomotive firemen of a western railway was urging recently an increase in wages. The brief that they submitted showed that, on account of the increase in the size of locomotives, they were shovelling more than double the amount of coal they were a few years ago, that the earnings and dividends of the railroad had increased, that in spite of this fact wages had remained stationary, while the cost of living had risen. The case was prepared by a committee of the union from the material found in the technical books of a public library. The railroad granted the increase without a strike.

To the lawyer also a technical collection is a valuable tool. Here we find it necessary to qualify the oft repeated statement that only the latest scientific and technical books are valuable. In Drummond's "Greatest thing in the world" Professor Simpson is quoted as saying, when asked by the librarian to pick out the books on his subject that were no longer needed, "Take every text-book that is more than ten years old and put it down in the cellar." This seems to be an accepted article of faith in the librarian's creed. Yet the experience of at least two scientific and technical libraries has shown the contrary. A suit was recently brought for infringement of patent of a chemical process, granted in 1894. The defense showed that a certain part of that process was known and used in this country previous to that date and therefore was not patentable. This could not have been demonstrated from Professor Simpson's library. Another patent involving a special method of manufacturing reinforced concrete, was seemingly infringed in one detail. In order to prove that this detail could not be patented, certain books which described the process and which were published before 1901, were produced in court; the records of the library were cited and even the date of filing the catalog cards was required. In another case a leading law firm needed the 1877 edition of Schorlemmer and Roscoe's "Lehrbuch der Chemie" and found fault with the public library that could furnish the later edition, but not the earlier. Such cases are of frequent occurrence. In addition, the older scientific and technical books are necessary for those who are tracing

the development of a subject; for those who wish to compare the old and the new, and occasionally for the manufacturers who have found the latest technical processes not altogether a success and wish to experiment with modifications of the older methods. Not so seriously, however, can be taken the case of a reader, who, having mistaken the author for the subject catalog, complained that the library was so up-to-date that the only title she could find under horses was the Horseless age.

Another popular idea is that a technical collection will be used independently of the other departments of a library and can be treated as complete in itself. For certain classes of readers this theory holds true; nevertheless a well rounded technical library should include in its scope both the pure and the social sciences. The relation between the manufacturer of wire nails and the growth of plants seems somewhat remote; yet in the steel industry there is a by-product, sulphate of iron, until a few years ago considered of no commercial value. Two of the libraries of this country furnished the material by which it was discovered through a study of physiological botany and conditions of soils, that sulphate of iron could be modified and used as a fertilizer. As a result several hundred thousands of dollars a year were and are saved to the company; incidentally the discoverer was promoted to the head of the by-products department. Take the analysis of soils and the most excellent surveys of the U. S. Bureau of Soils, which are used not only by the chemist, but by the farmer looking for a new location, by the manufacturer trying to find the best countries for the sale of his products, and even by the socialist in writing his articles on the economic history of the country from the standpoint of socialism. The dependence of the mining engineer upon geology, chemistry and paleontology is obvious. Neither can the social sciences be neglected. The electric manufacturer who is exporting incandescent lamps to Liverpool needs the Municipal year book to tell him the voltage used in the city. It is worthy of note that the publications of the National Board of Fire Underwriters on fire-protection—a technical subject—are largely devoted to a statement of the municipal government of the cities. The manufacturer of school apparatus needs a knowledge of educational conditions in various states. The relation of the various departments of scientific and social books to the technical section and the interdependence

of the three should be worked out in detail; practically it is brought to the attention of the assistants of one library devoted to the three sciences, daily, and the service of the library to the technologist alone would be seriously crippled by the omission from its scope of either the social or the pure sciences.

There are other needs of a technical library which may be mentioned briefly. Government documents are of the greatest importance, especially those of our own country. All documents received should be carefully examined by the reference librarians and the more important articles should be indexed. The periodicals and proceedings and transactions of societies are the backbone of a scientific and technical collection and with the increase of indices they are becoming more and more valuable. The necessity of a free admission to the stacks is, in my opinion, more doubtful, especially if the library is well cataloged. Indeed in the John Crerar Library many readers who are granted access to the shelves do not avail themselves of the privilege, preferring the public reading room with its bibliographies, card indices and attendants. Assistants have even been accused of shirking work in suggesting admission to the stacks.

Another need of a technical library and to some extent of all public libraries, is a mind-reader in the reading room. Many complaints against public libraries are due to a failure of the attendant to understand what is really wanted. Take the case of the man who asked for "collections." The attendant tactfully asked if it was coin collections and being answered in the affirmative produced a shelf of books on numismatics. The reader finally explained that he was a credit man and wanted to know how to make people pay their bills.

An attempt has been made to show that a public technical collection is not mainly a "municipal amusement like the band playing in the park on summer evenings," that it is a "public servant for all the people in their daily work." It is possible that in this country we have neglected to some extent the more serious reference use in order to devote the greater attention to circulation and children's work; yet to my certain knowledge every type of question mentioned by the "Independent" has been answered satisfactorily by the public libraries. The farmer *does* "drop in to see what is the red bug that is eating his box-elder

tree," the editor *does* "telephone over for a map of Port Arthur," the inventor *is* able to "learn how many times before his non-fillable bottle has been patented."

THE USE OF PATENTS

The following article by Captain Howard L. Prince, then librarian of the United States Patent Office, is too informing to fail in general interest, but especially it should appeal to those technical workers by whom files of patent records of the United States and foreign countries are recognized as invaluable possessions. Because of illness Captain Prince resigned July 23, 1916.

In responding to an invitation to prepare a paper on the "Use of patents" I assume that my effort should be to set forth the manner in which a librarian may render the best service to his patrons, in providing facilities for expeditious and intelligent examination of the great and ever increasing mass of patent literature issuing from the capital cities of every civilized nation.

The field is broad, the laborers are many, and in most cases the machinery is inadequate.

The countries whose patent publications afford complete and easily understood information concerning the subject can almost be counted on the fingers of one hand; the United States, with Great Britain, Germany and France, exceeding the output of all other countries combined, and the libraries whose shelves carry complete issues even of this quartette are few.

That portion of the general public which is interested in patents, is divided into two camps, seeking different ends, but each depending on the same source for gaining the desired result.

On the one side the inventor, often impractical and visionary, but fired with the hope of success and the rewards that come from an epoch making discovery, and scornfully rejecting any suspicion that the child of his brain could be only the reincarnation of some earlier pioneer. On the other, the capitalist, the manufacturer, the owner of great plants founded on already existing patents, ever on the watch for new discoveries which may so cheapen and improve processes that he will be left behind in the race, the one placing his belief in the absolute

certainty of the novelty of his invention, the other ready to pay liberally for the discovery of a patent which anticipates that of his rival—and between these rival camps stand the great army of patent attorneys seeking to prove validity for the one or an anticipation for the other—each depending on the librarian to supply the ammunition needful for the contest.

The libraries which can in any adequate degree supply the information desired by this clientage are practically limited to the cities of Boston, Chicago, Cincinnati, New York, Pittsburgh, St. Louis and Washington, the latter standing pre-eminent in its possession of the patent literature of all countries, which publish their patents in full, and with few exceptions of those which publish in abstract or by title.

The countries of the first class, 11 in number, have issued nearly 1,700,000 patents which are available for searchers either in chronological order classified in systems of more or less value and convenience. In this class in the order of their importance are the United States, Great Britain, France, Germany, Hungary, Switzerland, Austria, Sweden, Norway, Russia and Denmark, only the first four exceeding 100,000.

The principal use made of this immense mass is for the purpose of finding anticipation of patents in cases where, owing to the lack of time or the inadequate number of examiners, patents or claims have been passed to issue which ought to have been held up in the office; and in these searches a large number of people earn their livelihood, and fees sometimes exceeding $1,000 have been paid for a single exhaustive search.

The pre-eminent consideration for the patent profession is that of intelligent and available classification which can be seen and read, and in this England stands at the head, and I regret to say, the United States at the foot. This does not mean that the United States Patent Office lacks a classification, but it is not available to the public, it cannot be read on the face of its patents, nor is there any place ouside the Patent Office itself where the searcher can find all the patents of a class or sub-class with certainty.

This condition is due, not to the lethargy or neglect of the present officials but to the unprogressive spirit of former days and the lack of force since more enlightened methods have prevailed.

The classification division of the Patent Office was organized November 17, 1898, under order 1250 of the Commissioner of Patents, the Hon. Charles H. Duell, and its work has been carried on to this time under the wise and skilful management of its chief, Frank C. Skinner, but in spite of his enthusiasm and energy, through lack of force, not more than one-third of the task has been accomplished.

Each of the 39 examining divisions receives a copy of every patent, foreign or domestic, whose subject matter is handled by that division, and all these are classified and arranged for convenient reference, but are not open to the public for consultation, and searches must be made in the Scientific library which has the care of foreign patents, and in the attorneys' room where are kept the bound volumes of domestic patents.

The ideal library for patent searchers would contain two complete sets of the issues of the leading countries, one in chronological order, the other arranged in classes and sub-classes, but the considerations of expense and space put this desirable arrangement beyond the reach of most libraries.

Fifteen years ago the scientific library of the Patent Office bound a classified set of French patents covering the twenty-five years, 1860-1885, which has been used with very satisfactory results, and the office has triplicate copies of British and German patents from 1893 to date which were obtained with the object of making a classified set, but nothing in that direction can be accomplished in the near future for lack of shelving.

Leading patent firms find it necessary to have representatives at Washington, where only an absolutely exhaustive search can be made, and this justifies me in making a more extended reference to the methods of the United States Patent Office than would otherwise be necessary, since many libraries possess greater facilities in space and in financial resources. Searches in domestic patents are greatly facilitated by an arrangement on the floor of the lofty west hall, the alcove beneath the galleries being fitted up with cases holding more than 21,000 pigeon holes of suitable size to receive text and drawings which are pasted on opposite faces of a light card 7 1-2 x 11 inches in size. The patents in these cases are distributed by classes and sub-classes, a placard at the top of the case indicating the class, and another in the pigeon hole showing the sub-class, in which the patents are arranged in numerical order of date.

These sets of sub-classes can be taken from the cases by searchers and placed in boxes with flaring ends allowing convenient examination, but must be delivered to the attendants for return to their proper places. Fourteen desks accommodating in all 70 persons, are placed in the center of the hall beneath the skylight. This scheme affords a rapid and satisfactory method except for one weak point, the impossibility of preventing the loss or misplacement of patents by accident or deliberate intention. Such a loss if known is easily repaired, but there is no certain way of detection and there always remains the haunting fear of its occurrence. There is a general belief among searchers that these losses are numerous, but the results of frequent checking by the classifiers do not confirm the charge. Moreover, so far as the classification has been completed, a record can be found in the classification division of the number of every patent in any class or sub-class, this record being open to the public.

While Great Britain places no indication of class upon the face of its issues, it adopted many years ago a system of specification abridgment by classes. An unillustrated series from 1617 to 1866, and an illustrated series in seven periods viz: 1855-1866, 1867-1876, 1877-1883, 1884-1888, and three four year periods from 1889-1900 inclusive, is now completed, and the two periods 1901-1904 and 1905-1908 are in course of publication. It has also published an Abridgment class and Index key showing in one volume the whole scheme of classification. The abridgment of each patent contains a short description with one or more drawings when necessary, with a number, date and name of patentee.

An inquiry among leading patent searchers leads to the conclusion that these abridgments have rendered a classified set of British patents unnecessary, for should the abstract fail to disclose fully the scope of the patent, the complete specification may always be referred to. Of course there will always be a gap between the quadrennial issues which can only be bridged by referring to the information furnished by the Official journal. The same difficulty, greatly prolonged, would exist between the installments of a classified set.

Coming now to the seven countries whose patents carry on their face the class mark, we find France, Hungary and Switzerland each with an independent classification, while those

of Germany, Austria, Denmark and Sweden are identical up to 1900, when Germany adopted a new classification, the others continuing with the original plan. None of these patent offices has adopted the English plan of printed abridgments by classes. With the exception of Sweden, each issues a weekly journal. Those of Austria and Germany publish brief abridgments, that of Germany being illustrated in order of class and sub-class. The others are also in order of classes but contain only title, date and name of patentee.

The condition of French patents from 1896-1901 inclusive, is a troublesome one to deal with. From the beginning there has always been a large number of these, from 30 to 50 per cent of the issue, which were published by title only, and during these six years that office practically went to pieces. Only seven classes out of 20 were printed in 1896, nothing whatever in 1897 or 1898, about one in ten in 1899, a half year issue from January to June in 1900, and none in 1901. It is understood that this condition was due to lack of appropriations and that there is no intention to publish the patents of those years. In 1902 the new law went into effect and all patents are published in full.

Libraries have therefore the choice with these seven issues, of binding in classified or chronological sets, or possibly, of adopting our patent office scheme of displaying patents by classes in open boxes and taking the chances of loss and mutilation. In either case it is to be noted that the patents of Austria, Denmark and Sweden being identical in classification can be bound or arranged together, or even classed with Germany, prior to 1900. If the system of bound classified sets is adopted, the problem is at once presented of the disposition and use of the unbound copies during the accumulation of a sufficient number for binding, and this period will greatly vary with different classes, being in any case a question of years.

The advent of the loose leaf binder appears to be the solution of this question, subject to the limitations of expense for service and material in any particular library. The United States Patent Office is altogether too poor to enter on such a plan, and is obliged to store its extra copies and wait for the millennium of a new building and a more liberal appropriation for binding. Happily, I believe, most of the libraries which make a specialty of patents are in better case.

Methods of economy in the use of binders, such as the placing of a number of classes in one binder, and shifting with growth, will doubtless suggest themselves.

When all these questions are worked out and the United States prints the class number of its patents, then the curator of patents may recline *sub tegmine fagi* and the life of the searcher be one grand sweet song.

THE AIR SERVICE LIBRARY

The most conspicuous recent development in special libraries is one which, while exceedingly technical in itself, pertains to a subject that happens to be of especial interest to the world today. This collection, authorized by the United States government for the study of aeronautics, is described by Major H. M. Hickam, chief of the Information Group in the United States Air Service. It was stated that this account would be continued.

Although the Air Service Library is one of the most recently organized in the entire War Department, it is rapidly becoming an important technical and general Library on matters pertaining to this branch of the Service. The nucleus of the Library came with the transfer of the "Aviation Section of the Signal Corps of the Army," which on May 20, 1918 became the Division of the Military Aeronautics "charged with the operation and maintenance of all military aircraft," and the Bureau of Aircraft Production, "charged with complete and exclusive jurisdiction and control over the production of airplanes, airplane engines and equipment for the use of the Army, and all books, records and office equipment." By Act of Congress of June 4, 1920, the Air Service as it now functions was created.

The Air Service Library is charged with "the procurement of all books and magazines for all activities of the Air Service, both for the local library and sixty-two aviation fields throughout the country; gathering and making accessible for reference purposes the originals of all documents of the Air Service; gathering and maintaining for reference purposes the original print of the Air Service photographs, both foreign and domestic; the collection of foreign and domestic information on all aeronautical subjects; receiving and routing of all M. I. D. Air Service material, and maintaining liaison between the Air Service and Military Intelligence Division; production and procurement of all slides and films of the Air Service to be

used for instructional and historical purposes; collection and making accessible of sets of blue prints for every accepted type of airplane, airplane engine or airplane part," the aim being to make this the best aeronautical reference library in existence.

In August, 1918, the actual work of organizing the Library was begun, and at this time there are classified and catalogued, and immediately accessible, 2,500 standard books on aeronautical and allied subjects, and 16,000 original documents; about 40,000 photographs and 2,000 films and slides, together with a large collection of blue prints of airplane engines and parts, and an invaluable clipping collection.

Necessarily much of the information contained in the Library is of a confidential or secret nature, and is accessible only to such persons as are designated by various government departments and bureaus interested in aeronautics. Each day a typed list of new material available is posted in the library where properly designated persons make choice of the documents in which they are interested.

Documents: While the library tries to have on its shelves copies of every standard aeronautical publication, its most valuable resources are not the printed books but rather the collection of some 16,000 original documents, to which addition is being made daily. These documents give the latest aeronautical development in all countries interested in the subject, those from foreign countries being secured through M. I. D. from the Air Attaches of all countries.

Cataloguing: The cataloguing of these documents has been most interesting, for since the subject of aeronautics is so very new, the cataloguers could not be guided entirely by the recognized cataloguing guides, but had to adapt existing classifications to the peculiar needs of the subject. Hence the document catalog here will doubtless serve as a guide for future cataloguers.

All documents are bound in manila covers, and filed in steel cases, and for the 16,000 documents already filed a dictionary catalogue of some 28,000 cards has been made. In addition to the dictionary catalogue a serial catalogue has also been made, as there are so many invaluable series of aeronautical publications.

Magazines: The Library subscribes to the best aeronautical periodicals, and now receives regularly 166 English and American journals, and thirty in seven foreign languages. These magazines are immediately analyzed, and although this analyzing has been done but for a few months past, already 5,000 index cards have been made, thus making the latest aeronautical news immediately accessible.

Photographs: The Library collects, files and distributes all photographs taken by the Air Service. Already 40,000 photographs have been indexed and filed for ready reference; these include both American and foreign views of all kinds—views of cities, camps, historic buildings and activities of the A. E. F. The Photographic Section of the Library supplies many magazines, schools and organizations with Air Service photographs needed in their work.

Films and Slides: The procurement and distribution of all Air Service films and slides is also part of the library's activities and resources. These films and slides are loaned to certain authorized persons or institutions for lectures and instructional purposes. At this time there are some 2,000 films and slides in the collection, covering Air Service activities at home and abroad.

Blue Prints: The Blue Print Section has recently been turned over to the Library, and it is proposed to collect here, ready for reference and loan, under certain restrictions, a set of blue prints for every accepted type of airplane, airplane engine or part.

Personal File: The Library has accessible a card file giving the name and record of every commissioned officer who has been connected with the Air Service since its beginning.

Other resources: In addition to the material noted in the foregoing, the Library has charge of the following files, of which no index nor catalogue has yet been made, but which are available for use, and will eventually, when their contents have been accurately cataloged, become valuable data for the future historian:

A. E. F. technical and information files—which contain all data pertaining to Air Service activities overseas.

Bureau of Aircraft Production files—which give the history of the production of all aircraft during the war.

Aircraft Board files—containing the records of the Advisory and Consulting Board.

Major Langmuir files—containing technical information for the Bureau of Aircraft Production.

Colonel Harris' files—Colonel Harris was the legal advisor for the Aircraft Board.

Program and Statistics files—the programs and statistics of planes and engines during the war.

Such, roughly sketched, are the resources that the Air Service Library of the United States Army offers to the research worker: a collection of aeronautical information not to be duplicated elsewhere, catalogued and filed after approved methods and available for immediate reference.

It is true that the nature of much of this information is such that it cannot be given out indiscriminately, but it is here for the authorized searcher, and even the dilettante will find enough material available for his use to satisfy his curiosity, and to keep him posted on all things aeronautical—while the authorized searcher will find that his search for the most authentic data may end in the Library of the Air Service of the United States Army.

THE LIBRARY OF THE UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE

Behind the operations of that inexhaustible publishing house, the United States Government, stand huge collections. The description of one of these fields for study, prepared by Miss Lacy and read by her before the District of Columbia Library Association, January 5, 1921, brings it clearly into view. No longer to the layman should it appear strange that the published statements of the Department of Agriculture are accepted as Gospel Truth—they are books begotten of research and experiment.

Miss Mary Goodwin Lacy, librarian of the Bureau of Agricultural Economics, United States Department of Agriculture, since 1919, was born at Point Pleasant, West Virginia, and is a graduate of Stuart Hall, later becoming a student of agricultural economics at Iowa State College. Miss Lacy has held several related positions; from 1903 to 1910 she was librarian of the Virginia Polytechnic Institute, Blacksburg; from 1910 to 1918, reference librarian of the Department of Agriculture; and in 1919, in charge of the Agricultural Library of Iowa State College.

The Library of the U. S. Department of Agriculture is the largest library in the world devoted specifically to agriculture and the related sciences. It may be said to have been founded in 1839 when an appropriation of $1000 was authorized from the funds of the Commissioner of Patents for collecting and distributing seeds, prosecuting agricultural investigations and procuring agricultural statistics. Because of the fact that the statistics of agriculture were early perceived to be a vital necessity to the young Nation, the collection of them and of the records of them in books went hand in hand, and right at this point the library began which was destined to become, in

1862, the Library of the United States Department of Agriculture, then created. This, the National Agricultural Library, now numbers 165,069 volumes, and has a catalog of half a million cards. The collections on the subject of American agriculture, including horticulture, forestry, pomology, dairying, livestock, poultry, agricultural statistics and the various agricultural crops, are most extensive. In addition it has a large and representative collection of the most important foreign agricultural books and periodicals and a collection of the publications of foreign agricultural institutions, societies and experiment stations which is without question the largest and most complete in the United States. In the sciences which relate to agriculture, such as botany, chemistry and zoölogy, the Library's resources compare favorably with the resources of the large college and reference libraries of the country in these subjects and along economic lines they are probably unsurpassed. It is especially strong in scientific and technical periodicals and society publications.

The great strength of the Library, however, does not lie in the size or value of its collections, notable as they are, but in the character of its catalogs, bibliographies, and records which are pre-eminent in making available the literature of the subjects covered wherever it may be located. Its specialty, therefore, is this particular form of *Service*. These catalogs form an international bibliography of agriculture, such as exists nowhere else in the world. Those who work with these catalogs all the time do not realize how widely they differ in this respect from the ordinary catalog, until some delighted foreigner's enthusiasm spills over and he exclaims, "We have no such service as this in Europe." To explain a little more fully: The main catalog contains not only author and subject cards for the resources of the Department Library, but also the cards obtained from the Library of Congress and from other libraries of their resources in the subjects in which the Department is interested. In addition, the Library has analysed a number of the most notable foreign agricultural periodicals, and has both author and subject cards in its main catalogs for them. Subject headings are very carefully chosen, often with the help of the scientists themselves, but the wayfaring man is not allowed to err therein either, for reference cards in abundance take care of his needs. Besides this great main

catalog which includes all the material in the Bureau libraries, there are special catalogs and indexes in the Bureau libraries, such as the botany catalog, the plant pathology catalog, the catalog of veterinary science, containing about two hundred thousand cards, the index to foreign food laws, the index to economic entomology and others which make up a grand total of more than a million and a quarter cards indexing the literature of agriculture and the allied sciences—basis for a fair claim to being an international bibliography of agriculture.

As the steps of scientific progress are recorded, first in journals and proceedings of learned societies, the most notable section of the Library's resources lies in this class. Many of the sets of foreign agricultural periodicals are probably not contained in any other library in the country. The Library receives currently about 3000 periodicals, and by means of a "Continuations List" which is unique in character, tho widely copied, it makes all the information which the Library contains concerning a periodical or scientific serial available, in one place. Each entry card is a biography of the journal represented and makes available in the hour of need all correspondence relating to it, records irregularities of issue, change of title and much other information often of the greatest value in the verification of obscure references and in other ways. When it is remembered that the Library receives currently almost three thousand periodicals, half of them in foreign languages, and almost five thousand serials of less frequent issue and that this total of eight thousand serials is covered in the most comprehensive way and with the most meticulous care in this Continuations List, it is not hard to see why it is the pride and joy of all the Department Library workers. We shall be glad to share it with any of you who need its information at any time, for in so doing we shall be no poorer, and we shall thereby vindicate our pride.

In the broad outlines of its organization the Department Library resembles that of a university with its various departmental libraries, which correspond somewhat to the branch libraries in the Department of which there are thirteen. While it is obviously impossible to speak fully of the work of these in the time allotted me, I want to mention a few of the outstanding features of some of them. The work of any one of the Bureau libraries could easily fill all our time. We can only hope to mention a few of the activities of some of them.

The Bureau of Plant Industry's plant pathology catalog covers with great fullness the literature of plant diseases. The Botany catalog, filed in that Library also, consists of about two hundred thousand cards and is the result of a highly successful attempt to enlarge and coordinate the collections of botanical literature in the libraries in Washington. It makes available information as to all the main botanical collections in the country, notably those of the Gray Herbarium, the Arnold Arboretum, Lloyd Library and others in addition to those of the Library of Congress, the U. S. Department of Agriculture and the National Museum, the Smithsonian Institution, the Geological Survey, the Surgeon General's Office and the private libraries of Dr. Edward Lee Greene and Captain John Donnell Smith. There are author and subject cards for all entries and in addition a number of scientific serials, principally those published before 1800, have been carefully analysed. The subject matter represented is much wider in scope than is justified by the strict use of the term "botanical." The allied subjects of horticulture, tropical agriculture, fibers, gums and resins, pharmacology, special crops (cacao, cotton, rubber, etc.), seed adulteration and control, are found in this catalog as well as voyages and explorations which touch upon the botany of a country or publish scientific results. The catalog is also rich in biographies and bibliographies of botanists. Other work of the Bureau of Plant Industry Library is the verification and editing of all bibliographies contained in the publications of the Bureau and in the *Journal of Agricultural Research*. Last year this work comprised one hundred and twenty-eight manuscripts including two thousand one hundred and twenty-five references. An undertaking of the Library which is much appreciated is the compiling every two weeks of a list of the contents of the botanical periodicals received in the Bureau. This list is circulated to the scientists and others interested and has cut down very materially the circulation of the journals themselves, which had become such an immense piece of work that it threatened to break down of its own weight. It is no longer necessary for a scientist to see every botanical periodical issued. He receives this list instead and asks only for those journals which contain material of interest to him.

The Bureau of Chemistry Library contains the reference collection of the Department on the subject of Chemistry, and

performs much interesting and important work in connection with the Bureau's activities, both in the line of research and in the administration of the Food and Drugs Act. One of the most interesting of its activities is a file of foreign food laws which it has collected in the original, translated, indexed and made available to investigators. This collection is highly valued by the chemists themselves, and by the trade which is affected by the enforcement of the Pure Food and Drugs Act. There are 17 field libraries maintained by the Bureau Library also for the laboratories of the Bureau located thruout the country.

The Forest Service Library is one of the largest and most important of the Bureau collections. It has an index consisting of more than 100,000 cards which covers not only the books and periodicals relating to forestry, lumbering and forest products of all kinds but which includes analytics of all material of interest to the Forest Service contained in trade papers, as well as much manuscript material. There are also one hundred and sixty-two field libraries maintained by the Forest Service for its workers on the national forests, at the forest experiment stations and the Forest products laboratory. Thirty-one thousand books are charged by the librarian to these stations and there is a special flavor of romance about this work when we visualize the lonely lookout stations and the isolated workers to which these libraries find their way.

The Department's collection of state and federal laws is deposited for the most part in the office of the solicitor. We should omit any mention of this branch of the Department Library as being less interesting were it not that a statement as to why this collection is necessary is of interest. The fact that the Department of Agriculture enforces about fifty federal statutes, and that last year 6,000 cases of violation of these laws were uncovered and prosecuted and almost $250,000 collected in fines is not realized by most people. The rank and file of the population think of the Department of Agriculture as existing principally for the benefit of the producer—the much heralded farmer—whereas in fact it exists just as much for the consumer. Over a third of its appropriations are devoted to regulatory work, which, of course, means the enforcement of these fifty statutes which protect your health and safety and that of every other citizen and sojourner in our land. The

enforcement of these laws requires a staff of thirty-three lawyers and ten title attorneys. "Many of the criticisms of the Department in Congress and elsewhere can be traced to the sore spots left by the pressure of the laws laid upon the Department for enforcement."

Then there is the Library of the States Relations Service which has many and varied functions, two of which stand out pre-eminently—First, its part in the preparation of the Experiment Station Record, which since the establishment by law of the State experiment stations in 1888, has indexed and abstracted the great body of experimental data collected in this country, and a large proportion of that produced abroad. The Experiment Station Record is probably the most important single supplement to the main catalog. The other outstanding activity of this Bureau Library is the collection of the literature of the extension movement, which has been greatly augumented under the provisions of the Smith-Lever act. The county agent and the Farm Bureau go hand in hand, but that is another story.

The Library of the Bureau of Entomology consists of a highly specialized collection of both American and foreign works on economic entomology, as well as systematic works on American entomology and the more important foreign systematic works. Taken as a whole this collection may be said to be the best in the country on its economic side. The catalog contains over 50,000 cards and is very fully supplemented for American economic material by the Bibliography of American Economic Entomology. The first eight parts of this, covering the literature from 1860 to 1904, were published by the Department. In 1917 the Index to the Literature of American Economic Entomogy 1904 to 1914, prepared in the Bureau, was published by the American Association of Economic Entomologists. Index No. 2, for 1915 to 1919, prepared in the Bureau Library, is now being published by the Association.

Then there is the Crop Estimates or Statistical Library, which is said to be one of the strongest statistical libraries in the country, and whose votaries love and prize it beyond any words of mine to convey to you; the Library of the Bureau of Public Roads, containing a good collection on engineering, drainage, irrigation, rural sanitation, heating, etc.; the Farm Management Library dealing with the subject of agricultural economics in all its phases except marketing and crop statistics

of production, and last but not least in my estimation, the Bureau of Markets Library—I know most about this because of a five months' tenure of office there and having had not the smallest thing to do with collecting or administering it before that time, no considerations of modesty would prevent my talking about it for some hours to come were it not that your hard hearted program committee has imposed a time limit upon me.

The Bureau of Markets Library collections are not large for the reason that there has not much been written on the distribution and marketing side of agriculture. In spite of the fact that as far back as 1681 canny John Houghton of the Royal Society wrote that "What the husbandman is concerned with is the *materia prima* of all trade and the finding of a vent for his commodities is as necessary to his end as it is to know the ways of tilling, planting, sowing, etc."—in spite of this early recognition of the importance of marketing in agricultural, and indeed in all, economy, no serious attempt to work out the problem was made until recent years. So the literature of the subject is not extensive and of all things is the most elusive. Eternal vigilance is the price of collecting it and I stand abashed at my predecessor's skill and that of the Department Library in accomplishing the feat. The Bureau of Markets collections number less than five thousand pieces but it is probably as comprehensive as it is possible for it to be. One of the most important lines of work carried on in the Library is the maintaining of a legislative file of all material of interest to the Bureau. The *Congressional Record* is received each morning and all work of special interest is briefed. Two copies of all bills, resolutions and hearings of interest to the Bureau are requested daily, and filed by subject in folders so that the progress of any bill which is of interest may be followed day by day from its introduction to its final passage.

There is much omitted and much that has been touched upon has received but cavalier treatment. We hope, however, that this bird's-eye view of the great reservoir of agricultural information stored in the Library of the U. S. Department of Agriculture may tempt you to investigate for yourselves, and thus enable us to be of greater service to you than we have ever been before.

SOME SPECIAL LIBRARIES

The Special Libraries Association was formed at a conference of the American Library Association in 1909. The constitution, as given in *Special Libraries* of January, 1910, states: "The object of this association is to promote the interests of the commercial, industrial, technical, civic, municipal and legislative reference libraries, the special departments of public libraries, universities, welfare associations and business organizations."

Special Libraries of April, 1910, published a directory of eligible libraries, and, in the introduction to this list, the following statement appeared: "It has been thought best to exclude all special libraries relating to law, history, theology and medicine." Nevertheless these institutions were later welcomed to membership.

At the first meeting of the Special Libraries Association, held in November, 1909, Mr. John Cotton Dana, as president said:

> The special library, in that meaning of the phrase which we have had in mind in organizing this Association of special libraries, is an institution of very recent development. We may venture to define it as "the library of a modern man of affairs." This definition is not sufficiently inclusive, however, as is shown by my own experience in the matter. I have had the wish, for nearly all of the twenty years that I have been engaged in library work, to establish in the business center of the city in which the library I was managing was situated, a business men's branch; located on the ground floor, opening on the busiest office street of the city, not the busiest shopping street, large, well lighted and fully equipped with all the books which experience should prove to be of interest to men engaged in commerce, manufacture, finance and kindred matters. In Newark I have had at last the opportunity to carry out in a small way this idea, and to see a modest business men's

branch in the center of the town. This branch is fairly successful along the business line, and its success in this direction has something to do with the existence of this Association.

But you will say at once that while a business branch of a public library may prove to be of great value, first, to the main library as a bond between men of affairs in the city and the main library's great storehouse of books; next, as a useful tool for business firms of all kinds in the city; it still is very far from being a typical special library of men of affairs, such as this association has been formed to aid and promote. For, as the brief investigation already made into the development of the special library in this country shows that these special collections of books, reports and other printed material are so varied in their character and in the use made of them, that no definition will any longer satisfactorily include them all.

A glance at our Program including libraries of a public service commission, of a financial firm, and of an engineering firm, shows how wide is the range of thought and action in which the small special collection of books and other printed material has already found a place. . . .

The rapid development of this institution for bringing to the aid of modern industry whatever the student or the practitioner may have thought fit to put into type is very significant. It means that here in the opening years of the Twentieth Century, 550 years after the invention of printing, men of affairs are for the first time beginning to see clearly that collections of books and printed materials are not, as they were long held to be by most, for the use simply of the scholar, the student, the reader and the devotee of belles lettres, but are useful tools, needing only the care and skill of a curator, of a kind of living index thereto, as it were, to be of the greatest possible help in promoting business efficiency.

To say this again in a little different way:

The man of affairs has just begun to realize how important and helpful to him may be the material found in books, proceedings and periodicals and how readily it may be brought to his hand.

The library idea has always been more or less academic, monastic, classic. The impression has prevailed that the library appeals first of all to the reader of polite literature, to the student, the philosopher, the man of letters. This modern rapid

development of special libraries managed by experts who endeavor from day to day to gather together the latest things on the topic to which his library is devoted, to present to the firm and employees, is simply an outward manifestation of the fact that the man of affairs has come to realize that printed things form the most useful and most important tools of his business, no matter what that business may be.

We may look to see very wide and rapid development of libraries of all kinds in the next few years.

THE "MORGUE" AS A FACTOR IN JOURNALISM

A vivid picture of the newspaper behind the "morgue," as well as the technical methods employed by the librarian is shown by Mr. Joseph F. Kwapil, librarian of the Public Ledger Company of Philadelphia, in this intensely interesting and informing article, which was read before the Pennsylvania Library Club at Atlantic City, April 30, 1920.

Mr. Joseph F. Kwapil was born at Cedar Rapids, Iowa, March 4, 1882; he was educated at the Public schools in Cedar Rapids and at the University of Chicago, and has been librarian of the Public Ledger since 1914. He filled similar positions with the Minneapolis Tribune, 1902; Chicago Tribune, 1903-1908; Philadelphia Evening Bulletin, 1908-1910; Washington (D.C.) Times, 1911; Pittsburgh Post and Sun, 1912-1913, and has specialized in the reorganization of newspaper reference departments.

The "Morgue," when conducted on a modern basis, is an indispensable department of any well regulated newspaper. It bears the same relation to the editorial force of a newspaper as the accounting department has to that of a large corporation. Instead of accounts it is responsible for items of news, biographical and prepared obituary sketches, zinc etchings, photographs, reference books, etc.

The greatness of the morgue is demonstrated to the best advantage at times when there are happenings of great importance. There may be a great shipping disaster, a mine explosion, a bomb outrage, a sensational murder, or a great conflagration. It is prepared for just such emergencies as these in which the details are often meagre. It can supply a great variety of detailed information, photographs, maps and charts to illustrate it; making it possible to "play the story" for its full value from the news standpoint. Rival newspapers, which

have not developed their morgue department sufficiently to possess this material are at very much of a disadvantage.

By way of illustration: a fairly prominent person dies unexpectedly, there has been no time to prepare an obituary sketch in advance. The editor sends for all the available material. He receives an envelope of clippings, a book containing a biographical sketch, numerous photographs, and quite likely an envelope containing several cuts. From the data supplied the rewrite man is able to prepare a quite satisfactory sketch for the next edition, altho he may have had just a few minutes in which to do this. Within a half hour from the time that the message came into the office the newspaper is on the street, giving full details, which include a sketch of his life and that of his family, embellished with a good late portrait. This kind of incident is of practically everyday occurrence. While on the subject of obituaries, the well-equipped morgue has many thousands of up-to-date obituary sketches and cuts of people of local, national and international importance in its files for such an emergency, and those of special importance are prepared in advance, set in type and kept corrected up to date. These are given a number in the "galley" and the proofs are filed in the morgue.

Newspaper reporters are constantly changing from one office to another. Why this should be it is not easy to explain. They change so frequently that it is almost impossible to be familiar with all their names. As a consequence it is often necessary to assign a new reporter to a story that has been covered on previous occasions by other members of the reportorial staff. Altho he is unfamiliar with the details or history of his story, he can get the envelope on that particular subject, study what has been previously written, and he is thus enabled to write intelligently and in accord with the policy of the paper on this particular subject.

The editorial writers use the morgue freely to ascertain and verify facts. They consult it when they are about to quote someone and want the exact wording of what he said and the occasion on which he said it. It is invaluable when it is necessary to secure the text of certain bills pending in Congress or the state legislatures, and the facts and statistics that have been used in connection with such bills.

The Sunday department is dependent to a great degree on the morgue for data and photographs to illustrate the magazine

section of the paper. A high percentage of the articles used in this section is based on the material supplied by this department.

There is an important tuberculosis or cancer discovery announced in Paris. The City Editor wants to give the story a local angle, and wishes to obtain the opinions of resident specialists on this new discovery. The morgue is called upon to supply the names of such specialists and is able to do so from the news clippings filed, in which they are quoted on that subject.

The promotion branch of the Advertising Department has a request from a prospective advertiser who wants facts about automobiles, for instance. He may want the number of passenger cars, motor trucks, accessory dealers, etc., in the city. The morgue should be able to supply these facts.

The Circulation Department every day receives many letters with enclosed stamps, asking for a paper that had such and such an article, the date of which the enquirer does not recall. These inquiries are all referred to the morgue, which supplies the dates with little trouble, by means of the news index, a daily chronicle of the contents of the newspaper.

The newspaper is looked upon as a kind of public institution, and is expected to answer questions that cover almost every subject imaginable. The public looks upon it as an obligation on the part of the newspaper, rather than a courtesy. These requests for information come in the form of letters, telephone calls and personal visits. The morgue has a special department called the Information Bureau where all queries are submitted. On some days the telephone rings incessantly and the calls run into the hundreds.

The success of a newspaper morgue depends a great deal on the librarian in charge. He must be a man who is wide awake to his position and responsibilities. He must be a student of events and happenings so as to select the material to be filed. He must possess a mind for detail and organization and be able to reduce lost motion to a minimum. He must act as the connecting link between the past, the present and the future. He must be historian of contemporary events, and is supposed to have everything that has happened in the last fifty years at his finger tips. He must be thoroly familiar with persons local, national and international. To use a slang baseball expression, he is the "pinch hitter" in almost every crisis.

When a big news story "breaks," the order runs: "Get the morgue on the 'phone quick," and the morgue man is expected to be "on the job" like a fire horse. He must be persistent and determined with the tenacity of a bulldog. No task is too great or too difficult for him to tackle. The harder the task, the more he glories in it. He takes a keen pride in the department, and is most jealous of its reputation, and when it fails, even tho thru no fault of his own, he feels the humiliation deeply.

When he does the reading for the material to be filed, the whole world is as a panorama to him, he clips an item here and there with the finesse of a surgeon doing a delicate operation. By being familiar with events and happenings everywhere, from day to day, he finds it unnecessary to read this material thoroly. He has developed a fine sense of news value, and is able to judge quickly as to whether the matter is worth saving. His reading averages about one hundred newspapers daily, and every week he handles thousands of news clippings, and yet by means of his finely developed system he can lay his hand on any clipping almost instantly. Such a librarian can make his work rank with the most important in the newspaper office, while on the other hand if he lacks vision and initiative, he can keep it on the level of that of an average file clerk.

According to the modern standards of journalism, the *Public Ledger* has an excellent example of the up-to-date newspaper morgue. Several years ago when the Curtis interests purchased it, it was discovered that the morgue was the weakest department of the whole newspaper plant. It was decided, therefore, to reorganize this department which was thus enabled to adopt the best features of the several great newspaper morgues. Where other newspapers had their material scattered in several different departments, the *Public Ledger* merged them into one central department, concentrating all authority under one head who was responsible directly to the general manager of the paper. This effected a tremendous saving in overhead expense, and at the same time speeded up the entire machine.

Vertical filing equipment was adopted in preference to the open shelf system, the vertical file being more sanitary and saving at least 50 per cent on floor area necessary for aisle space where shelving is used.

Some newspapers file their photographs and clippings to-

gether. This necessitates the use of a large manila envelope to file small clippings, and owing to the fact that the clippings far outnumber the photographs, it causes an enormous waste of drawer or shelf space. To avoid this the *Ledger* Morgue adopted a six by four inch envelope made of strong thin paper. One thousand of these envelopes measure eighteen inches. The same number made of manila paper of the kind generally used, would measure thirty inches. This saving of twelve inches of drawer space for every thousand envelopes is very important, in view of the fact that the number of envelopes runs into the hundreds of thousands. With the use of the larger envelope there is also a tendency to put too much material under one broad classification, thus causing a great waste of time at the critical moment in locating some specific material. In contrast, the smaller envelope system lends itself to more definite and direct classification, and allows sub-division of the material as occasion demands. For photographs a ten by twelve inch manila envelope is used, allowing an envelope to every person and subject filed. Before being filed every photograph is stripped and trimmed of every vestige of surplus material so as to keep down the bulk. Fully 98 per cent of the photographs can be filed in this size envelope.

Many morgues use the same size of envelope to hold both one and two column cuts. But the one column cuts outnumber the two column cuts by about six to one. To save space, therefore, the *Ledger* adopted a three by five inch envelope for the one column cuts, and a five by eight inch size for those taking two columns. By doing this it is possible to file twelve thousand one column cuts in the space which would otherwise accommodate only forty-eight hundred cuts.

Very few newspapers keep a daily index of their papers, and are compelled to depend on their clipping files to trace facts published in their paper. This involves the filing of a great deal of material of only temporary value which in a few months "clutters up" the files and lessens the value of the permanent material. To avoid this the *Ledger* established a daily index. The records are typewritten on special ruled sheets, and show the month, day, edition, page and column on which each story appeared. At the end of the year the sheets are bound in a loose leaf ledger and serve as a permanent index to the bound files for that particular year. This involves about five hours' work daily, and proves a great time saver.

By doing away with the card index for the clipping and photograph files, and by making the envelopes containing the material serve the same purpose, it was made possible to reduce almost by half the work of filing, and greatly to facilitate the quick collection of material.

For keeping record of books, negatives and cuts, the card file has certain advantages. The cards used for this purpose have special forms, each most suitable to the purpose for which it is intended. This arrangement has worked out wonderfully well and could not be improved upon.

In regard to the system of classification, it was found advantageous to subdivide the material into three main divisions: personal, geographical and general. The personal division has by far the greatest amount of material, fully 60 per cent of the material being in this division. For this five thousand subdivision guides are used. The material is filed strictly alphabetically. When there is a great deal of material on an individual, it is subdivided as required. To illustrate, the subdivisions for President Harding are as follows:

Anecdotes
Ancestry
Anglo-American relations
Appointments
Armor plate trust
Army
Boyhood days
Cabinet
Disarmament
Election to presidency
Foreign policies
Germany
Golf
Hobbies
Inaugural
Ireland
Labor
League of Nations
Liberty bonds
Masons
Merchant Marine
Messages to Congress
Music, favorite
Nomination to presidency
Obituary
Presidential campaign
Presidential campaign (addresses arranged chronologically)
Presidency
Prohibition
Railroads
Religious views
Recreation
Senatorial record
Signature
Sketches
Soldiers' bonus
Summer home
Tariff
Woman suffrage

Roughly estimated, there are at present about two thousand clippings on President Harding. To find some special material by this method is a simple matter. For example, we want a certain statement he made in reference to the Irish question. All that is necessary is to go to the Warren G. Harding division of clippings, run down the alphabet until we come to the "Ireland" envelope. In it will be found clippings containing parts of speeches, interviews, etc., relative to President Harding and the Irish question.

Every time a prominent person in public life delivers an address or gives an interview, the full text is filed and a duplicate is carefully read and clipped. This article may contain statements regarding the League of Nations, the Japanese question, the tariff and, possibly, a half dozen other vital subjects. In each case the part bearing on that particular subject is filed under that subdivision under the speaker's name.

Material other than personal is filed geographically as far as possible. In this division, the major subdivisions are the countries arranged alphabetically. The system of classification is so standardized that guides are suitable to almost any country or city. As an example let us take England. The classifications read:

Army	Foreign Relations	Parliament
Aviation		Railroads
Bolshevism	Labor	Strikes
Cabinet	Liquor	Tariff
Elections	Lords, House of	Treaties
Estates		Woman suffrage
Finances	Navy	

These subjects are subdivided again according to the material; thus, there may be under any one main head as many as fifty subdivisions. When the subjects of national importance have run the alphabet, the cities are arranged alphabetically, and the material on the cities is subdivided something like this:

Apartments	Hotels	Clubs
Art galleries	Industries	Fire department
Bridges	Lighting	Fires
Buildings	Libraries	Gas
Charities	Churches	Historic

Monuments	Prisons	Streets
Museum	Residences	Theaters
Newspapers	Schools	Water
Parks	Statues	Waterfront, etc.
Police	Street cleaning	
Population	Street railways	

The classification for cities varies according to the material filed. For large cities there are more subdivisions than for smaller cities. For example, there may be material on three hundred different churches. There is an envelope for each church, and these are arranged alphabetically so that there is only one place to look for material on a certain church and one can tell instantly whether there be material on it.

The general division is for material such as cannot be filed according to any geographical point. For instance, some of the subdivisions selected from the A section are: Abdications; absinthe; accidents; acetylene; acidosis; acrobats, famous; actors; actors, Equity Association; adding machines; adenoids; advertising; aeroplanes, *see* aviation; age; agriculture; air.

These, too, are subdivided according to the extent of the material filed; the subdivisions of the heading "alien," for example, being as follows: Arrests, Austrians, deportations, enemies, hoarding of money, passports, population, property, slackers, etc. In some cases there may be as many as thirty subdivisions, the material being constantly re-classified as occasion demands.

The same system of classification is used for clippings, photographs, cuts and negatives. Thus, a person familiar with the clipping files can apply his knowledge to the other branches of the department.

In the *Ledger* morgue there are six persons employed. The head librarian reads and clips newspapers and magazines, supervises the department, interviews visitors and passes judgment on material of doubtful value for filing. The assistant librarian assists with the clipping; marks and classifies the clippings to be filed, answers queries and gets out material called for by the different departments of the newspaper. The second assistant does all the filing of photographs, cuts, clippings and negatives, assists in looking up material in the files, and waits on the public which comes to the library for information. The

night librarian indexes the morning *Public Ledger,* answers queries and gets out material as wanted by the night staff. There is another indexer who indexes the *Evening Public Ledger,* and handles some of the telephone queries during the daytime. An apprentice keeps record of the material taken out and returned, goes to the different departments of the newspaper and collects material borrowed, strips the photographs from the mounts, enters the captions, dates, etc., and does other mechanical work.

The scope of activities of the *Public Ledger* morgue are broader than that of any similar department in the country. It is responsible for the clipping, photograph, cut, negative and advertisement drawing files. It keeps a news index to two papers, has charge of the reference library, the information bureau and the exchanges. It handles about three thousand clippings, twelve hundred photographs, five hundred negatives and two hundred drawings weekly. The service calls on the department often reach three hundred daily. The department supplies material to the *Evening Public Ledger, Public Ledger, Retail Public Ledger,* the *Saturday Evening Post, Ladies' Home Journal* and the *Country Gentleman.*

In the files there are at present about eight hundred thousand envelopes of clipping material, of photographs about five hundred thousand, about eighty thousand negatives and forty thousand cuts. The library consists of about ten thousand volumes. It would be difficult to estimate the value of such a department in money, as most of the material, if lost, could not be replaced.

The morgue is a big factor in modern journalism. The average editor and publisher do not realize this, and often think that almost anyone can fill the post of librarian. Then they wonder why they do not get results from a department, the head of which ranks with the file clerks instead of with the editors. At a conservative estimate I should say that every dollar judiciously spent on the morgue will add at least ten to the physical valuation of the newspaper property on the whole.

THE STATE LIBRARY

The following paper, appearing in part, was read by Mr. Demarchus C. Brown before the National Association of State Librarians, during the Conference of the American Library Association, at Pasadena, California, in 1911. He describes a situation not peculiar to Indiana and offers a plan which might well be adopted in every state in the Union.

Demarchus Clariton Brown, state librarian of Indiana from 1906 until his death, August 23, 1926, was born at Indianapolis, June 24, 1857. He was a graduate of Butler College in 1879, and received a second degree there in 1880. Later, at different periods, he studied in Germany, Athens, Paris and London, and, from 1882 to 1906, was Professor of Greek and Greek art at Butler College.

There are, as there ought to be, voluntary historical societies in most of the states. Some of these have no connection with the state; some are trustees of documents, records and archives for the state, as in Wisconsin. I raise the question here, Shall the state library be the center of historical research and historical preservation in each commonwealth? Naturally, I refer more especially to state history, though I do not debar general history. In my own state the historical society has had no permanent quarters; the material is in the office of the president and in a musty room in the capitol basement. The society receives a small appropriation from the state treasury wherewith to publish its monographs. Is it not better to continue the private association, but to make the state library the center, where all volumes and records may be kept, meetings held and work carried on?

I would by no means disparage private organizations. I would encourage them, but give them the protection and assistance of the commonwealth. The state does this in education, general, legal, medical and technical, and why not in historical collections?

1. Such a center supported by the state would encourage the deposit and donation of manuscripts, newspapers, etc., by private individuals.

2. It would lend a sense of security, if properly done, not otherwise given.

3. It would make the state a great instructor in its own history. I believe that the commonwealth is properly the instructor of the people. (I am not afraid of paternal government.)

4. This system would make the history of the state and its study more universal—more a part of the demos—and it is the demos we pretend to serve. This service would in this way be more democratic than if owned and controlled by a private organization.

5. The state collections would be thus readily accessible to all research students from educational institutions and to all authors and historians. The advantages of a central grouping of historical material cannot be stated in too strong terms.

Does not the same condition exist for the archives of the state? In Indiana the auditor, secretary of state, clerk of the Supreme Court and governor's office contain the archives, most of them inaccessible and uncared for. They are historical and ought to be properly classified and scheduled.

I am aware that there may exist jealousy on the part of the official about these archives. He wants to keep them. However, a campaign of education and tact in handling the subject will bring about good feeling in this regard. I have had some discouraging experiences, but now that Indiana is to have a new building for the library, I see light ahead. I beg to quote here from the report of a member of my staff, Prof. Harlow Lindley:

An investigation into the archives of the state has proven beyond all question that the state records are in a most unsatisfactory condition, and beyond any possibility of permanent improvement until provision is made by law for their care and organization.

This condition has arisen from a variety of causes, among them the various movements of the capitol, the lack of room, and the absence of any adequate provision by law for their proper preservation.

A large part of the earlier public records of the state, if in existence at all, are inaccessible, even to one giving his time

and effort to the task of making a report concerning them. Many of them are stored away like junk in dark, damp and dust-covered rooms in the basement. Present state officials know nothing about them, and no one has ever been given any authority by law to make the proper examination. The preliminary examination this summer has revealed something of the value of these old records, and has also revealed the hopelessness of the undertaking under present conditions.

Among the treasures found the following are enumerated here just to illustrate the possibilities of the work: Record books of the territorial court of Indiana, 1801-1816; Record books of the supreme court of the state, beginning with 1817; Plats of land, including Indian reserves and grants; Official reports and papers relative to early canals and railroads; Official material relative to early state roads; Records, letters, etc., of the United States land offices located in Indiana; Letter books from various departments; Enlistments; Public education; Reports of commissions, etc.

The final accomplishment of the undertaking would mean a great saving in time and care, on the part of the state, of records which will become more valuable for reference and research work all the time.

The following recommendations are made which, if executed, would at least begin the solution of the problem and prepare the way for future activity and progress:

1. That provisions be made to provide, furnish and equip a permanent place for the preservation of the public records of the state in an orderly manner.

2. That steps be taken to examine, classify and remove to a suitable place the papers, documents and records not of present-day use to their respective departments.

3. That any state, county or other official be authorized and empowered, in his discretion, to turn over to this department for permanent preservation therein any official books, records, documents, original papers, newspaper files and printed books and material not in current use in his office.

HENRY E. HUNTINGTON LIBRARY

Under the distinguishing title "Two World-Famous Libraries" were grouped, in *Special Libraries,* this account of the Henry E. Huntington Library, at San Marino, California, and a description of another unique collection, which will follow—both distinctive types of libraries and limitless in value.

The author of the present article, Leslie Edgar Bliss, now librarian, has been associated with the Huntington Library since 1915. He was born in Poland, New York, March 26, 1889, and graduated from Colgate University in 1911, receiving his degree from the New York State Library School, in 1913.

The Henry E. Huntington Library is an outstanding example of that spirit which has prompted several of America's wealthy capitalists to confer upon their home city or state the benefits of their world-famous art and book collections. After a period of somewhat more than ten years spent in intensive book-collecting, largely at auction or by en-bloc purchases of libraries formed by other collectors over an extensive period of years, Henry E. Huntington in 1919 decided to give his loved state of California and, through the state, the world at large his already world-famous collection of books and manuscripts. By a deed of trust a self-perpetuating board of five trustees was then created, now composed of George S. Patton, chairman, Dr. George Ellery Hale, Henry M. Robinson, Dr. Robert Andrews Millikan, and Archer M. Huntington, which will automatically administer the affairs of the trust on the death of the founder. A building to house the collection was erected on Mr. Huntington's beautiful San Marino estate, and in 1920 the library staff of eleven (now augmented to twenty-two) and the collection were removed from New York City to California.

The library is intended to serve research workers in the fields of incunabula, English and American literature and Amer-

ican history. It is hoped that exhibitions covering subjects within its fields may be prepared from time to time and that a half-day each week may be set aside for the public view of these exhibits. At the present time the library is not open to visitors but several research workers have already availed themselves of its facilities, in fact they have done so ever since its establishment in the present quarters. Many bibliographical and other reference questions have been answered through correspondence and by means of the photostat. The research worker without the means or the opportunity to come to California to consult the rare material housed here often finds the photostat his best aid and consequently much of this sort of work is done.

It is impossible to state with any degree of accuracy the number of books and pamphlets the library contains, though it is believed to be in excess of one hundred and fifty thousand. In incunabula alone the five thousand mark was passed within the present calendar year, thus placing the collection well in the lead, in numbers at least, of all libraries in the Americas. In English literature from the beginning of printing in England through the Victorian period it is doubtful if the San Marino collection is surpassed as a general thing outside of the great libraries in England, being especially strong in that great period of English drama, the Elizabethan. In the rarer books of American history the library compares favorably with the John Carter Brown, the Lenox, the Ayer and the Clements collections, thus placing it in the first rank for research work in this field. It possesses exceptional material on the American Revolutionary and Civil Wars, on Washington, Lincoln and the history of its home state of California. Underlying all these collections of printed material, a firm foundation for research work is its manuscript collection, in which is an untold wealth of material, some already published, but the large part as yet untouched by the worker in source materials, consisting of well over a million separate letters and documents. Among these a few of the more outstanding are the *Columbus Book of Privileges,* the *Pizarro-La Gasca* documents, the *Ellesmer Chaucer* the *Franklin Autobiography, Washington's genealogy* in his own hand and over one hundred and thirty letters of Lincoln.

THE HOOVER WAR LIBRARY

Dr. Ralph Haswell Lutz, director of the widely known Hoover War Library, at Stanford University, was born in Circleville, Ohio, May 18, 1886. He graduated in 1906 from Leland Stanford University, received the degree of LL.B. from the University of Washington, in 1907, and that of Ph.D. from the University of Heidelberg, in 1910. For several years he filled the position of instructor and assistant professor at the University of Washington and served in France during the World War. He has been assistant professor of history and director of the Hoover War Library since 1920.

The Hoover War Library of Stanford University is a research library. It was founded in 1919 by Herbert Hoover to gather and preserve materials necessary for studies of the causes, the conduct and the results of the World War. Since that time the scope of the library has been enlarged to include the period of reconstruction following the war. From 1919 to 1921 the library was administered by Dr. E. D. Adams and Dr. Ralph Lutz, both members of the history faculty of Stanford University.

In 1921, owing to its enlarged scope, the library was reorganized and placed under the control of a directorate of ten members consisting of the founder, the president of Stanford University and the director of the University Libraries as ex-officio members and representative of the faculties of the social sciences at Stanford University. These men are responsible for the general policy of the library and for its acquisition program. The administration of the library is in the hands of the director of the University Libraries. Since the reorganization the chairmanship of the directorate has been held by Dr. Adams and Dr. Lutz, the present incumbent. In addition to the directorate, the library has enlisted the aid of several well known European scholars, especially in eastern Europe, where

the book trade is comparatively undeveloped. These men have undertaken responsibility for building up the various collections in the Hoover War Library in the fields in which they are eminent.

The Hoover War Library has its own staff, its own reading room and its special stack floors. At present it is housed in the Library of Stanford University, but owing to the extraordinary growth of the War Library and its peculiar demands this arrangement is proving unsatisfactory and the War Library will within a few years have a building of its own on the Stanford University Campus. An estimate of the contents of the library can best be given by a description of the plan of acquisition and the results which have been accomplished in carrying out this plan.

Government Documents

The library collects official government documents from every country in the world, intensively for the war period, selectively but exhaustively within the chosen fields for the reconstruction period. These documents include the parliamentary debates and documents and the reports and publications of governmental ministries or departments. The collection comprises not only documents which were made public but also many official papers which were not intended for circulation outside of government circles. In this group may be mentioned the confidential weekly summary of labor and industrial conditions in the enemy countries compiled by the British Foreign Office and the British Ministry of Labour's weekly *Spy* summary of a similar character, two sets secured for the library by Dr. Adams in 1919. The library has government documents from over fifty countries of the world and the work of collecting in this field is still carried on intensively.

Supplementing the section of official government documents is the library's collection of personal memorabilia or private papers of men and women who were active in world affairs during both the war and reconstruction periods. This collection, usually in manuscript, is for the most part confidential and its use restricted in one way or another. It has for a nucleus sixty-five thousand reports and communications bearing on conditions in Europe during the war and post-war periods.

In illustration of the group may be mentioned the papers of Dr. George D. Herron, unofficial confidential adviser to President Wilson especially during the separate peace negotiations with Austria, and copies of official papers of the late Count Stephen Tisza, Prime Minister of Hungary during the war.

Society Publications

Government documents are a *sine qua non* of any great war collection. The Hoover Library, however, has not confined itself to the activities of governments. It has endeavored to gather together materials which will give in some manner a cross section of the lives of the peoples during this troubled period. For this purpose the library has collected the publications of societies, that is, miscellaneous, non-governmental organizations or groups of people banded together to maintain and proclaim some point of view. In certain countries wartime restrictions on the right of free organization, free speech and free press forced many societies to disband or to function clandestinely. The Hoover Library has secured the records of many of the societies under ban during the war as well as the publications of societies which were in good repute with their governments.

War Propaganda

It is an undisputed fact that the amount of propaganda issued by governments during the late war achieved unprecedented proportions. The Hoover Library has an unusually large and valuable collection of these materials especially for Great Britain, France, Germany and the United States. The library's collection includes a large portion of the British Library of the Ministry of Information, which was the British government's collection of war-time propaganda issued by all countries, enemy, allied and neutral. The Hoover Library also possesses an extensive collection of the British government's own propaganda issued by Wellington House, a department of the Foreign Office. In this group should also be mentioned the library's unique and interesting collection known as Delegation Propaganda. This collection consists of approximately two thousand items of propaganda issued by some fifty-four delegations seeking audience at the Paris Peace Conference in 1919.

The catalog of this collection is in press and will be issued shortly as *Bibliographical Series Number One of the Hoover War Library.*

Newspapers and Periodicals

One part of the program of the Hoover Library calls for a newspaper collection consisting of a war-time newspaper file for every country of the world. For the more important countries files of newspapers representing the point of view of every considerable political group are being secured for the period 1914 to date. The library also possesses unusually complete collections of the governmental press reviews of Great Britain, France, Germany, Serbia and the United States.

In the matter of periodicals the library follows much the same plan that it pursues in the acquisition of newspapers. It collects war-time periodicals intensively in the fields of the social sciences for all countries. For the post-war period collecting is selective but exhaustive within the chosen fields. With a few exceptions, European countries only are represented in this period.

Records of International Organizations

The development of international organizations is given extensive representation in the Hoover Library. The library is making every effort to secure complete files of the publications of the League of Nations, the World Court and the International Labour Office. The publications of other international councils, conferences, etc., of the war and post-war periods are for the most part still confidential and a great part of the library's collection of these materials is not yet open for use. It is sufficient to say that no efforts are spared to round out this important section of the library.

Books and Pamphlets

The policy of the Hoover Library in securing miscellaneous books and pamphlets dealing with the war and reconstruction admits of no restrictions as to country or language. The book is evaluated from the standpoint of its usefulness in research only. The extent of the books and pamphlets collection is shown by the following figures (approximate):

Works in French language	10,000
Works in English language	9,000
Works in German language	7,000
Works in Russian language	12,000
Works in Hungarian language	1,500
Works in Italian language	1,500
Works in other languages	4,000

Posters and Maps

The library has made no special effort to collect posters but it has acquired several important and extensive sets. Among these may be mentioned the collection of posters of the Schleswig plebescite, that of the Bela Kun regime in Hungary, a collection of several thousand Bolshevik Russian posters, an extensive French collection and a German collection including many war loan posters.

The same situation prevails with regard to maps. No systematic effort has been made as yet to secure a comprehensive collection of maps commensurate with the other sections of the library. There are, however, numerous important sets of maps in the library including a small collection of general staff maps. It is the intention of the directors to round out the whole map collection under the guidance of a geographer or other map expert.

Russian Collection

The Russian collection in the Hoover War Library is worthy of special mention. Due largely to the efforts of Dr. Frank Golder, the Hoover Library has probably the best archive beyond the Russian borders for the study of Bolshevism. The collection, however, covers all phases of Russian history since 1914, Russian foreign policy at the outbreak of the war, the collapse of the Czarist regime, the Kerensky government and the bolshevist revolution. The value of this collection is enhanced by the presence at Stanford University of valuable Russian materials of the pre-war period including a collection of state papers dating back to 1649.

Special Collection

In addition to the main divisions into which the library has been classified certain special collections have been acquired and

maintained as entities. Among these are the David Starr Jordan Collection, rich in unpublished materials, the library of the late Alfred Fried, eminent Austrian jurist and pacifist, the Alonzo Taylor Collection of war-time economic publications including Food Administration and War Trade Board materials, a collection of German materials, about five thousand items in all, containing placards, proclamations and posters of the Great War and the German Revolution, and a German collection of about nine thousand items purchased from Ingenieus F. Mönkemöller. This latter collection is especially rich in front line materials—propaganda, orders, proclamations, etc. The most important of these special collections, however, and in fact the nucleus around which the whole library was created is the archive of the Commission for Relief in Belgium, truly an archive, of "that piratical state," as Sir Edward Grey described it, "organized for philanthropy."

The Hoover War Library has been in existence now over seven years. It is the product of the labor and thought of Mr. Hoover and the group of scholars associated with him in building up the library. It is not a completed entity. Many of its sections are fairly well rounded, others show much to be done. While the plan of acquisition remains substantially the same as it was in 1919 the vision has broadened as the work has progressed and no one can confidently foretell what the ultimate limits of the library will be.

LEGISLATIVE AND MUNICIPAL REFERENCE LIBRARIES

No statement, however fulsome, could exaggerate the great pioneer labors, in the entire library field, of Mr. Frank Avery Hutchins, of Wisconsin, and particularly his effort to promote a legislative reference library. This aid to the legislator was his own conception and the enthusiasm of Dr. Charles McCarthy carried it to success. Dr. McCarthy, in his exposition of legislative work "The Wisconsin Idea," p. 214-215, says:

The legislative reference department of the Wisconsin Library Commission was established in a small way in 1901. It became apparent at once that the demands of this library were of a peculiar nature which could not be readily met by the ordinary library material or methods.

A plan was devised which has been since carried out as far as the resources given by the legislature would permit. It was found that there was no cooperation between the different states of this Union in the matter of collecting the history of legislation; the history of what had occurred in Europe, or in some state of the Union upon a certain subject of interest to the people of the state was not readily available. An effort to supply this demand was made by collecting such indexes of up-to-date legislation as were published, bills from other states, documents explanatory of legislative movements in other states and arranging these by subjects so that they would be at the service of all who desired to see them. It was found that even this material did not solve the problem; it was necessary to clip newspapers from all over the country and to put the clippings in book form, to index them carefully and place them also with the subjects. Our own bills of the previous four sessions were carefully indexed and by noting the subjects of those bills, we anticipated the problems with

which the legislature would have to deal. These problems or special subjects were carefully studied in the most minute detail. It was comparatively easy to get laws and court cases but it was far more difficult to find how these laws were administered, to discover the weaknesses in them and to note as far as possible how they could be adapted to our use in this state.

ONE WAY TO GET SANE LEGISLATION

To the credit of the Wisconsin Legislature remains the fact that the first appropriation for the establishment of a legislative library was the work of that body and upon the recommendation of Governor Robert M. LaFollette.

Dr. John Rogers Commons, professor of political economy of the University of Wisconsin, gives in the accompanying article an exceedingly clear picture of the manner in which this novel function was developed.

Dr. Commons was born in Hollandsburg, Ohio, October 13, 1862. At Oberlin College he received the degree of A.B., in 1888; A.M., in 1890, and that of LL.D., in 1915. Dr. Commons, after instructing at Wesleyan University, became professor, in turn, at Oberlin College, Indiana University and Syracuse University.

Much has been said of the failure of representative government in American states and cities. Many are the remedies proposed and adopted, most of them in the nature of restrictions on the legislative branch. Legislatures have been tied up and held down by revised constitutions; they have been blocked by executive and judicial vetoes; and some city legislatures have been stripped of power, or all but abolished. This question comes up, Instead of restricting the legislature, how can its efficiency be increased?

Take the ordinary member of a State legislature. He is serving his first or second term. He has been elected, not on the strength of his expert or technical knowledge of the subjects on which laws are to be enacted, but because, in general, his views on public questions agree with those of the majority of his constituents. In the first few weeks of the session he finds himself swamped in a shower of several hundred, or perhaps a thousand, bills introduced by himself and fellow-members. Each of these is a prospective law on

which he must pass judgment. Evidently the task is impossible even for a body of experts, since no expert can be proficient on all the subjects that come before American legislatures. Much more is it impossible for the man whose knowledge is only that of the generally well-informed citizen. The result we know. The members separate themselves into committees. All the bills are distributed among these committees, and each committee becomes a little legislature on a group of related bills. The rest of the legislature must take on trust the explanations made by the committees or by members when reporting back. This is simply log-rolling, or trading,—the only possible mode of legislation where members can inform themselves on but a small proportion of the bills.

Here the lobbyist comes in. He is really the present-day form of the legislative expert. Few, if any, of the members can cope with him in technical and detailed knowledge of the subjects on which he presses his views. Even the member who introduces and champions a measure is often less informed upon it than the lobbyist who backs it or fights it. Hence, the great power of the lobby.

The difficulty is that the lobbyist is interested in presenting only one side of the case. The problem is to bring to the legislature the testimony and advice of all other experts throughout the country. This may seem like a big task, but it is really only a matter of ingenuity and enterprise.

A Legislative Clipping-Bureau

That this is so has been demonstrated by Dr. Charles McCarthy during the last two sessions of the Wisconsin Legislature. In 1901 the library of the Wisconsin Historical Society was moved from the State Capitol to a building of its own at a distance. The legislature thereupon added an appropriation of fifteen hundred dollars to the funds of the Wisconsin Free Library Commission, with which to employ a "legislative librarian" at the capitol. The appointment was given to Dr. McCarthy, a graduate of Brown University and a doctor of philosophy of the University of Wisconsin. Dr. McCarthy entered on his duties without a library and without an example. But he had been a student of legislatures and of legislative procedure. He had spent a month in historical research at the

legislative library at Albany, N. Y. But he could not hope to reproduce the magnificent equipment nor the exhaustive bulletins, bibliographies and aids to legislative students of that great library. He did a very sensible thing.. He started a clipping-bureau. He collected all of the pamphlets, bulletins, reports of commissions, magazine articles and the like that he could get free. He accumulated as many duplicates as possible for free distribution. He classified them and arranged them under proper headings, paying special attention to the subjects that he knew would come up at the next legislative session. He searched the libraries of the several state departments and brought over whatever he thought would be an aid to the legislature. By the time the session met in 1903 he had, not what would be called a library, but an up-to-date, live set of aids to law-makers.

Expert Advice For Legislators

But this was preliminary. As soon as the elections had been held he sent to all the members of the incoming legislature a circular, telling them something of what he had on hand, and offering to assist them by furnishing information, copies of laws enacted or bills introduced in other states, etc., on any measure that they proposed to bring before the legislature. Over one hundred requests came in, and he forwarded by mail his clippings, pamphlets and bills. When the legislature assembled he moved his collection to a room on the same floor. He circulated among the members, brought them to his library, and showed them what he had. He learned what they wanted and, if he did not have it on hand, he immediately wrote or wired to all parts of the country to get it. No member was left to read through a lot of treatises or law books and laboriously digest a subject, but Dr. McCarthy put in his hands the already digested work of others who were studying or acting on the same line. When the committees were appointed and began their work he helped them in the same way. He sent hundreds of copies of their bills to experts, commissions, lawyers and informed citizens in Wisconsin and other states, asking for criticisms, improvements and accounts of whatever experience they might have had on the points involved. If a lobbyist made statements of fact before a committee, he would

have replies by post or telegraph within a day or two thereafter from the parties who knew the facts. The chairman of the Committee on Claims has given several instances where these replies saved the state hundreds and even thousands of dollars. Other committees were aided in a similar way. The committees on railway legislation, primary elections and civil service reform at the sessions of 1903 and 1905 had before them, not only the laws of all the states, but the bills introduced in other states, the hearings on those bills, arguments of counsel, the best pamphlets and magazine articles, besides pertinent letters from the best-informed men of the country, of all shades of opinion, on the details of their own bills which they had under consideration.

Maximum Of Service At Minimum Of Cost

So practical and effective has been this assistance from the start that the legislature, in 1903, increased the appropriation so as to allow the employment of a skilled librarian and stenographer, while the legislature of 1905 added another appropriation to employ an expert assistant in statistics and political economy and a legal assistant as legislative draughtsman, the latter to be employed only during the session. The assistant in statistics is now at work on several topics that will come before the legislature of 1907. Even with these assistants and expenses for correspondence and telegraph, the annual appropriation for the next two years is only $4,500, an increase of $1,500 over the preceding two years. It is indeed surprising on what a small appropriation has been produced such a large amount of usefulness.

Not only do members of the legislature profit by this enterprise, the citizens of the state are learning to make use of it. Students in the university working on debates have come into contact with live problems in a direct and up-to-date way that could hardly have been thought of heretofore.

Not A Political Office

Already other states have heard of this work and are making inquiries. The legislature of California established a similar librarianship in 1904, and one of Dr. McCarthy's assistants has been appointed to the post. There are indications that

other legislatures will follow, while several state librarians have made themselves acquainted with the possibilities of such a branch of their work, and are taking it up or are remodeling their former efforts on similar lines. There are two prime qualifications necessary in the man who can do this work successfully—extensive knowledge of the places where information can be found on all public questions, and alertness and facility in "mixing" with legislators in order to learn and even anticipate the kind of help they require. Dr. McCarthy has both these qualifications, and in seeing him do the thing one would conclude that it is a personality and not a job.

Such qualifications cannot be secured where the appointment is a political one. The Wisconsin Free Library Commission is an unsalaried commission designed to stimulate the reading of books throughout the state. The legislature has wisely left the appointment of legislative librarian and assistants to this non-partisan body, instead of retaining the appointment itself or placing it under a political department. Otherwise the position would have added merely more patronage and not more legislative efficiency.

THE MUNICIPAL REFERENCE LIBRARY AS A PUBLIC UTILITY

The important part played by the city in the affairs of the nation is convincingly presented in this article by means of picturesque statistics. The very fact that an analysis of the American city startles us, merely emphasizes our placid acceptance of familiar conditions without giving them interpretation.

It is impossible to reproduce the entire address of Mr. Frederick Rex as delivered by him at the Conference of the American Library Association, in 1916—an exhaustive treatise upon the municipal reference library, its necessity, its purpose, methods of work, sources of information and accomplishments; several sections of it, however, are given in full.

Frederick Rex was born in Chicago, November 8, 1880, and was educated there at public and private schools and the University of Chicago; he was, from 1898 to 1906, reference librarian of the Chicago Public Library; assistant city statistician from 1906 to 1913, and has been municipal reference librarian since that time. He is the author of treatises relating to municipal affairs and has held prominent positions in various civic associations.

Of all the remarkable achievements of the past century the development of American cities has been most pronounced. The rapidity of their growth, the increase in their wealth and population have had no parallel in modern times. One hundred years ago no city in the United States could lay claim to distinction as a metropolitan city with a population of 100,000 or more. Today twenty cities in the Union are in the latter class and their number is being increased by each census. These cities are the result of our tremendous economic develop-

ment. Such development is intimately related to the vast quantitative and qualitative increase of our material resources, coupled with the unprecedented augmentation of our population since the Civil War and with the marvelous skill and aptness whereby our citizenship has been able to subdue the forces of nature and render them subject to its service.

The importance of the municipality in our national life is evident from the fact that today fully one-half of the population of the United States resides in urban communities. One-tenth of the total population of continental United States in the year 1910 could be found resident in our three largest cities, namely, New York, Chicago and Philadelphia. In the magnitude of their undertakings, the grandeur of their public enterprises and the extent of their fiscal relations, these three cities exceed nearly all the states in the American Union.

The importance of the metropolitan city in this respect is best illustrated by the phenomenal growth of the city of Chicago during the seventy-nine years of its corporate existence.

Chicago on March 4, 1916, celebrated the seventy-ninth anniversary of its birth as a city, but it might more properly be called only thirty-five years of age, for within this period of time it has added, in round numbers, approximately 2,000,000 people to its cosmopolitan family. Its population has been garnered from all parts of the habitable globe.

Chicago contains more Germans within its boundaries than any city in Germany excepting Berlin, Hamburg, Dresden and Leipzig; more Irish than any city in Ireland excepting Dublin and Belfast; and more Bohemians than any other city on the face of the globe excepting Prague; Chicago has more Norwegians within its area than any city in Norway excepting Christiania; more Swedes than any other city excepting Stockholm. It is the second largest Polish city and the seventh largest Italian city.

There are but eleven states in the American Union which have a larger population than Chicago. Nearly three-fourths of the entire population of the United States in 1790 can be found in the city of Chicago today.

The population of Chicago is nearly equal to the combined population of the states of Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Rhode Island and South Dakota. Chicago has 3.2 times more people within its city limits than can be found in the whole

state of Maine; 5.6 times the population of the state of New Hampshire; 6.8 times the population of Vermont and 4.2 times the population of Rhode Island.

Chicago's public school enrollment in June, 1915, was 345,512. This is more than there are people in each of the states of Arizona, Delaware, Nevada and Wyoming. The total number of public school teachers in Chicago exceeds the total number of teachers in each of twenty-one states. The appropriation made by the Chicago City Council for the year 1915 for municipal purposes, including the public schools and library, amounted to $90,951,706. This is greater by one-third than the cost of conducting the United States Government annually prior to the Civil War, the total ordinary disbursements of the United States Government in the year 1861 being, $66,650,213. The entire national budget of the Kingdom of Sweden in 1914 was but $73,362,239; that of Norway during the same year but $41,513,700; that of the Netherlands $91,823,078; while the total budget of the whole Turkish Empire did not exceed $134,262,299.

The majority of the citizens in every municipality desire good government. They wish more ample protection against crime and disease and an amelioration and improvement in such conditions as affect their every day lives unfavorably. In order to accomplish these ends nearly every issue in municipal politics is one of greater efficiency in municipal administration. Professor Munro has well named it the "quest for efficiency." Our cities have come to realize the need of efficient and economical government and the necessity of facilitating the work of their public officials by supplying them with the means of obtaining data and information on municipal administration and legislation.

In the present day and age the common desire is for greater efficiency not only in affairs of government but in the industrial and commercial field as well. The essential condition and prerequisite of greater efficiency is knowledge. Individuals learn from experience. The common tendency of man is to learn from his own experiences and mistakes. It is the part of wisdom, however, to profit by the experiences of others. Society as well as individuals should learn from experience. This is especially desirable in our municipal life, where the astounding and unprecedented growth of our cities continually presents new problems of the greatest import to the future

welfare and progress of their citizens. In order to assist public officials in the constructive work of the municipal government a special force should be placed at their disposal whereby they may be given an opportunity of availing themselves of the latest and best information on any feature of municipal activity and work in the world.

Considered as an elementary proposition the purpose of the municipal reference library is to collect, arrange and make available for use information and material on matters relating to and touching upon municipal administration and legislation. It is a central depository, workshop laboratory and clearing house of facts and information serving as a haven to the perplexed alderman, department, bureau and division head as well as the citizen, where they may cast anchor after the heated discussions and confusing issues raised in the adjudication and arbitrament of problems affecting the public welfare by partisan and selfish private interests. It should afford them a welcome pause and enable them to determine to what extent they may have been driven from a true course of action. After an examination of the impersonal and unbiased information and material on file in the municipal reference library it may be possible for them to confute sophistry and special pleading and effect a determination of pending municipal problems according to basic principles of public interest, right and justice.

It is necessary that a municipal reference library collect, classify, index and preserve all data obtainable relative to the operation and government of municipalities, such as reports, statistics, books, ordinances, magazines and clippings. Such material should be available to municipal officials and employes, citizens, civic or commercial organizations, representatives of the press, students, social workers and others who may desire information on any function or phase of the public work of the municipality. It is not sufficient that the library collect material and information but equally, if not more, important, is the fact that it should be put in ready, convenient form so that it may be consulted and used without difficulty and unnecessary trouble. The library should also be a favorite place of research for newspaper writers, editors and reporters for the purpose of consulting the material on file in its relation to the live municipal problems and issues of the day and as an aid in marshaling the facts needed in the preparation of a "story," to appear in the afternoon or morning newspaper.

Its aim is to lift up and support the arm of government with the strength of its resources and facilities. With its help no city need try experiments more or less dubious in their outcome and results. It should be able to lay before our public officials the experiences and results accomplished in other cities in solving or attempting to solve problems, however complex and difficult. It should give to official life and activity a broader vision by the study of the ordinances, experiences and achievements of other cities and their comparative value and applicability for local use in the light of differences in economic, physical and essentially local conditions and requirements. While much has been expected from our city officials, comparatively little has been done in placing at their disposal facilities for intelligent and efficient methods of legislation and administration. It has been said that we have preached the gospel of efficiency, but have done little toward providing the means of grace. Material desired as an aid to legislation under archaic conditions antedating the advent of the municipal reference library has been collected, and obtained by individual members of the city council, by clerks of committees, by department or bureau heads, or has been supplied by biased and interested parties.

Problems infinitely complex are placed before our city officials for solution, oftentimes involving nice distinctions of social policy and arrangement, with consequent differences in opinion and diversified interests. These problems and policies may determine the wise or wasteful expenditure of public funds with their consequent effect on the taxpayer's pocketbook in the form of higher or lower taxes. In order that measures and laws may not be initiated and enacted on the spur of the moment and with undue haste it is the part of wise municipal statesmanship to avail itself of the experiences of other cities and to be guided by their successess or failures. It is to aid public officials in arriving at just conclusions and sound principles of procedure on public administrative and legislative measures and policies by placing at their disposal and at their command all the available information and data obtainable on various subjects that the municipal reference library has its raison d'être.

The municipal reference library when established should supplant the wasteful, cumbersome policy often practiced by city officials of gathering information by means of personal

investigating trips to other cities. The results obtained by this method are not commensurate with the cost, usually produce unsatisfactory results, meet with popular disapproval and are decidedly expensive. Even though justified by the results obtained it is a grave question if the data and information secured by reason of such personal trips of inspection could likewise not have been obtained from the books and pamphlets on the shelves of the municipal reference library.

The late William J. Gaynor, when mayor of New York City, made the statement that he would need the whole of his first term (four years) to learn how to be a competent mayor. His idea of arriving at such competency and efficiency was to travel from one city to another from time to time during his term of office and in this manner gain a knowledge of methods of municipal administration and legislation. While the motive of the mayor was undoubtedly a good one, his method was decidedly crude.

The municipal reference library by reason of the well-digested material in its files and on its shelves showing the experiences and results achieved in other places, cities and countries on various topics should ever be helpful in aiding the official toward promoting and undertaking sound measures designed to mitigate and tender abortive any attempt toward experiments not sustained by facts. Measures sustained by comparative facts and experiences necessarily should result favorably, due allowance being made, of course, for altered conditions. Comparative facts assembled by the municipal reference library should greatly aid in sound social and government progress in its relation to established law and order.

The service and value of the municipal reference library should be measured in terms of the mass and amount of compact, concrete information it is able to supply to those for whose use it has been established. It should be an arsenal of mental ammunition for the city officials and employes who are engaged in bearing the brunt of the battle waged in behalf of better administrative and legislative methods in city government. It furnishes a constructive basis for greater efficiency in the conduct of municipal affairs.

It would be a blighting influence on the work of a municipal reference library should the latter during any period of its existence be viewed as biased or partisan in its relation to

public men and measures. Its function should be to assemble facts and material and permit these to speak for themselves. A municipal reference library should never assemble information and facts in connection with any investigation or problem unless the same are free from distortion and bias. It cannot attempt to influence legislation or administrative action. It should consider itself a guide and help to intelligent legislation and administration, but never otherwise. The personality of the individual should not be traced in its work, in so far as such personality represents bias or selfish endeavor. It does not hold a brief on behalf of the people as a whole, save in so far as the work of the municipal reference library may be representative of the interests of the people by standing for greater efficiency and science in the art of government. It cannot support or oppose any man or measure and remain a municipal reference library. It should not, likewise, be considered a publicity bureau whose function shall be to throw light on the deeds and misdeeds of city officials. Often the municipal reference library can enable the members of the city council or a department head to arrive at the basic facts and intrinsic worth of any measure or proposal. When a department head or a subordinate makes a recommendation to the city council it may be that such recommendation is filled with the view, opinion or bias of its proponent. Similarly, where department heads are not under civil service the latter change their views as often as the incumbents of these positions change. Each official under a change of administration, quite often, has different views from his predecessor, unable sufficiently to comprehend the relation and continuity of municipal work, with the result that the City Council or the chief administrative head of a municipality has no fixed, definite knowledge of procedure to be adopted or followed. It can readily be seen how valuable the work of the municipal reference library should be at such a juncture, as the only central, organized, continuous machinery for the assembling and collection of material and information. It can offset the bias or altered views and policies of departments by presenting the historic development and chronology of each particular measure in the city's governmental affairs, as well as sustaining, or supporting, or explaining each measure in the light of the experience and accomplishments of other cities. Thus the

particular view or opinion of the author of any proposed measure will be given a proper setting and its proper relation and due proportion to the subject under investigation in its entirety and will not be permitted to dominate the whole investigation by reason of the lack of adequate information and material necessary to interpret and counteract such dominance.

The members of the city council and department and bureau heads are not averse to making use of the information assembled by the municipal reference library, if the same can be relied upon as impartial and accurate. If it is intended to have the municipal reference library perform a genuine public service it is essential that the administration of such library be kept out of politics and that its various employes be chosen according to the principles and methods of civil service. A non-partisan, scientific administration of the work of the library cannot reasonably be expected under other conditions. Conducted in a non-partisan spirit and anchored on the merit system it should be able to facilitate intelligent legislation by the city council or board of aldermen as well as by various municipal departments. Such a policy would make its work non-partisan, scientific, efficient and accurate.

It is much to be preferred that the work of the municipal reference library be felt, by reason of the quiet influence it is exerting on the work of the legislator and administrator and by the confidential, secretarial relations thus established between the library and the official. In a large measure the success of the library is dependent upon the influence it exerts in enabling such official to arrive at and form a fair judgment as to the measures under consideration.

The municipal reference library, devoid of the private opinions and personal influences of its employes, solely devoting itself to the impartial collection and assembling of facts and information for the use of public officials, presenting such facts without fear or favor to officials for their use and action, regardless of the men or measures affected thereby, should be compared in the honesty and impartiality of its work and the rectitude of its intentions to the Horation ideal of the just man who fears neither the frown of a king, nor trembles at the clamor and fury of the mob.

The sources of municipal information are chiefly documentary, secreted in the reports and publications issued by

the numerous boards and departments of the federal, state and local governments. Books on municipal government by authorities and on special phases of municipal legislation and administration should be available. The city charters and ordinances are helpful as aids in comparative legislation. The annual municipal departmental reports must be thoroughly indexed and analyzed and they may be available as sources. Here lie hidden amidst a mass of irrelevant material data on street cleaning, refuse disposal, sewage disposal, paving, harbors, traffic regulation, public baths and comfort stations, the milk problem, municipal revenues and other measures of municipal activity, which taxes the skill of experienced classifiers in the attempt to garner the wheat from the chaff.

Extended studies are made occasionally by acknowledged experts in their respective fields for cities seeking ways and means to solve vexing problems, among a number, the following being instanced: Parsons-Hering-Whinery report on street cleaning, Arnold's report on traction matters, Burgess and Jackson reports on the telephone, Haskins and Sells on municipal accounting, Chicago City Waste Commission on garbage and refuse disposal, the report of the Chicago City Council Committee on Crime and the reports made by the Chicago Municipal Markets Commission on municipal markets and on a practical plan for relieving destitution and unemployment.

As a means of keeping abreast with current municipal legislation, it is essential that the published proceedings of boards of aldermen and city councils be obtained regularly and indexed carefully. Reports made by state boards and commissions having jurisdiction over municipal matters can be obtained upon payment of express charges or postage, if not gratis. Clippings from newspapers and magazines furnish a fund of information hard to procure otherwise. The local public and special reference libraries are additional sources and frequently the working libraries of specialists, experts and corporations furnish the data for which an unavailing search has been made. Other methods failing or proving unsatisfactory, questionnaires may be sent out to those able to furnish information, and the replies duly summarized and tabulated.

It is not here intended to demarcate the sources of municipal information. On the contrary, they may be defined as being entirely dependent on the ingenuity and originality of the librarian and his staff.

It should be emphasized that the collection of material on file in a municipal reference library be in close relation to its immediate and future needs and activities. Material no longer used or obsolete should be discarded with the same zeal and patience with which it was at one time acquired. One of the most difficult problems before the municipal reference library is the elimination of unusable and obsolete data and the retention of live matter. It has well been called a question of the selection of material rather than one of mere collection and retention. The library should contain data and other information sufficiently broad in scope to obviate the necessity of obtaining information and facts by resorting to the sending out of elaborate questionnaires. The last named means of eliciting information resorted to by city officials and private organizations has long been looked upon as a nuisance and an ogre by those who may be fated to be its victims. A questionnaire if conscientiously answered by the recipient is invaluable as a method of obtaining information, but if filled out in a perfunctory and careless manner can only be considered as useless and a waste of time, effort and money. For this reason it is advisable that the municipal reference library collect full information on all possible sorts of subjects relating to its peculiar field of work in order that much fruitless correspondence be foregone. The questionnaire is the latest improved scheme and plan devised to shift the burden of investigation and research upon one's fellow man, who most often is a stranger and located hundreds and perhaps a thousand miles away. It is not the intention here at this time to belittle or underestimate the uses of the questionnaire, but it should be emphasized that the true method of investigation is that whereby such means of obtaining information are only resorted to when all other methods based upon the efforts and pains of the librarian have failed to supply the desired or needed information.

In no American city is the work of distributing municipal documents handled in a systematic and adequate manner. There are but few cities which possess a single agency for their distribution to libraries, institutions of learning, officials, periodicals and citizens. The regular edition of each annual report of a municipal department as a rule comprises one thousand volumes, although some departments exceed this number. Ordinarily, from 25 to 50 per cent of the entire edition

are bound in cloth, although some departments print the whole edition in this manner. Under conditions obtaining at present each department has its own mailing list for the distribution of the annual reports and in some instances such lists are prepared with care. The distribution made by each municipality of its annual reports is in nearly all cases wholly local, unscientific and wasteful. The municipal reference library should be selected as a central agency for the distribution and exchange of municipal documents. In Chicago the Municipal Reference Library, under an ordinance passed by the City Council, has been designated as the medium of exchange for the official documents, annual reports and publications of the city with those of other cities and institutions. It has been the policy of the Library to enter into an arrangement with libraries and other institutions in various cities whereby the latter are made the official depositories of the annual reports, documents and publications of the City of Chicago, on the basis of the exchange of these documents for the official documents and reports of other cities.

The importance of a planned and intelligent distribution of public documents to libraries is evident from the fact that under present conditions when municipal departments publish annual reports, the editions of such reports are, of necessity, limited and the distribution is not arranged in a systematic manner so that these reports may really reach the persons and institutions interested in the same. Each department serves as a distributing point and there is no careful comparison of mailing lists. There may be no complete list of American cities or libraries, many perhaps being omitted, while others are duplicated.

Frequently a department head holding an elective or appointive office sends a report, elaborately bound with gilt edges, and graced with his and his subordinates' portraits, to his political and personal friends and followers, who, after admiring the clearly evident greatness of their friend in office, never read even a single page in the ornate volume and soon toss it aside and eventually it finds its place among scrap and on the junk heap. It has been estimated that fully 60 per cent of all public reports after a comparatively short time find their way to the scrap heap and thence to the paper mill. On the other hand, on account of this lack of discrimination in the distribution of

official municipal documents, libraries, universities, civic organizations, citizens and students really interested in municipal departmental work and activity are often unable to obtain a copy of the report.

The municipal reference library should be intrusted with the work of distributing and exchanging municipal documents and be required to keep a complete list of the receivers of these reports and adequate mailing lists. The distribution of the public documents of a municipality should be made and arranged according to an intelligent and systematic plan. The library after supplying the members of the administrative and legislative branches of its own city government, should send such reports to the local newspapers, to special technical magazines and journals interested in the same, to the officials and public libraries of other cities willing to receive such reports on an exchange basis, to universities and other institutions of learning which may desire them and to the general public upon express demand and request.

In order to eliminate the waste incurred by a municipality in the unsystematic distribution of its public reports and documents it is urged that all municipal reports, documents and publications, no matter where issued, should be distributed from one central bureau, agency and source and that the municipal reference library be fixed upon as the most logical bureau or agency for the distribution of municipal documents in a scientific manner. By placing this duty and function upon the municipal reference library it is believed that not only will the use value of municipal documents be increased thereby, but the expense annually incurred by our municipalities in the publication of the same will be proportionately decreased.

In nearly every municipality newly elected city officials find themselves at a loss how to proceed. Inquiries are often made by newly elected aldermen or newly appointed department heads regarding the means of obtaining information on municipal activity and procedure. The municipal reference library could act as a clearing house not only for the use of city officials and department heads, but also of the general body of citizens in each city and of other cities concerning the large mass of information and facts relative to the city government, existing and on file in the various departments and bureaus of the municipal service. The library could serve as a clearing

house to answer requests and questionnaires from other cities for information concerning the municipal government and its public work.

In order to offset the ill-repute acquired by the questionnaire on account of the unreasonable uses to which it has been put and for the purpose of re-establishing it as a legitimate means of obtaining information, it is well to recognize the need of establishing in each scheme of municipal government a certain department or bureau through which the large number of inquiries concerning the various avenues of municipal activity may be cleared. The selection of the municipal reference library as such a clearing house of facts concerning local governmental activities would be entirely in accord with the fitness of things, inasmuch as it is the one place in the municipal body politic where facts can be obtained readily and with a maximum efficiency since it is possessed of the necessary material and sources of information. In this respect the municipal reference library may be compared to the large department store, the latter being equipped with the various and innumerable needs affecting human life, all under the same roof. Similarly, the municipal reference library may be considered a vast storehouse in the municipal government, inasmuch as it has in its files and on its shelves the information and facts relating to all the avenues, branches and fields of municipal activity, service and work. The municipal reference library if thus organized as the department or bureau in the municipal government through which inquiries of all sorts may be cleared will serve as an efficient agent in the elimination of the waste of time and effort formerly prevalent by reason of its lack. That this waste is considerable is evident from the fact that often the outside inquirer will write a half dozen or more officials in the same city in the hope of receiving an adequate reply. The officials in each case will probably send replies to the one single inquirer, utterly impervious to the fact that a neighbor official is doing the same thing and that one complete reply from some single local official would answer the purpose.

It is this need of a central source from which accurate municipal information may be obtained which is apparent to nearly all department and bureau heads in the city government and which the municipal reference library can undoubtedly meet in an adequate and assured manner. The mayor and many

other officials in each city frequently receive requests for information covering every detail of municipal administration and legislation. They are not always in a position to comply with these requests for sundry reasons, and the waste basket becomes the ready destination of many of them; or such inquiries require so much time that the official must sacrifice or neglect his regular work and duties and thus many remain unanswered or are but imperfectly answered.

George McAneny, formerly president of the Borough of Manhattan, New York City, in his address before the American Library Association at Kaaterskill, New York, in 1913, described this waste of effort, time and money on the part of city officials in a very forceful manner.

Niagara unharnessed was wasting much less power than are we officials, school superintendents, mayors and engineers who are answering such questionnaires. It would be remarkable enough if we always answered right; but most of us answer quite inadequately, and many of us answer wrong. Last year, a certain national society wrote me, asking certain questions about civil service reform. I had had more or less to do for some years with that line of public service. My instinct was to take time from pressing duties to answer these questions; but a neighbor who had received a similar set of questions was thoughtful enough to write to this national body and suggest that before he answered he would like to know how many other New York officials and private agencies had received the same set of questions. If appeared then that twenty different people, including a dozen officials, had been asked to fill out that blank. Whereupon it was suggested that instead of drawing upon twenty people who did not possess the facts, the investigator might turn directly to the Civil Service Commission that did possess the facts, and there, no doubt, he readily found what he wanted. Now, if a municipal reference library could have served as a clearing house, it would have been brought to light at once that one answer would have served the purpose of twenty, or that one answer, at least, would have served the purpose of the dozen official answers. Moreover, just as the official reports give fresher material than published books, such correspondence, manuscript reports of investigating committees, etc., give fresher material than published reports.

In view of the ill-assorted replies now being sent out by various departments concerning their respective activities, as a means of avoiding duplication of effort and preventing waste of time and money it should be the policy of the administrative head of each city to determine and fix upon the municipal refer-

ence library the duty and responsibility of performing this function and acting as a general repository, fact center and clearing house of information concerning city affairs. It should be a general bureau of information and publicity for the use of local officials and of other cities. It should be the central agency in each municipality to which inquiries for statements of facts of all sorts may be referred, either by city officials or by the public. Whenever special investigations are ordered the municipal reference library should be able to assemble and supply the necessary data and material, so that the investigating body will not be compelled to resort to the wasteful process in each case of creating its own agency for ascertaining facts.

In nearly each city in the United States it is extremely difficult to find in one central bureau or office copies of the reports, documents and publications issued by its various departments and officials since the beginning of its corporate history. As a rule, the annual reports of departments and bureaus are kept segregated in each department and bureau, it being tacitly assumed that the latter will, naturally, keep a complete file of its own annual reports since its establishment. This duty, which is not imposed by ordinance, and, therefore, is purely voluntary and lacking the cohesive force of the compulsory requirements of a municipal law, is thus really no duty at all. A department head elected or appointed in office frequently upon leaving office takes with him various departmental reports issued by him. The members of a city's law department or of the city council desiring to consult the annual reports of various departments and bureaus are required to run to and fro from floor to floor to the offices of each department in order to consult the annual reports and publications of the same. In most cases these reports cannot even be found on file in the offices of the respective departments or bureaus issuing the same.

In order to preserve printed archives and records, encourage proper continuity of work and service in municipal government and standardize municipal functions and activities it is imperative that each city set aside and authorize the creation of a central bureau or agency in the city hall whose function shall be to keep on its shelves for the use of city officials and the general public complete files of the annual and special reports,

documents and publications issued officially by the municipal government since the beginning of its corporate history.

The gathering of local maps, plates, surveys, charts and the like should be considered a desirable field of work which the municipal reference library may assume as within its province. Frequently inquiries are received from city officials and citizens for ward maps, maps showing the annexations made to the city at different periods since its incorporation, maps showing the distribution of population by wards, election precincts and census enumeration districts, maps showing the industrial, manufacturing and commercial areas of the city, steam, elevated and surface railway maps, maps showing the prohibition, local option and wet areas, maps showing the assessor's tax valuation districts, maps showing the location of parks and playgrounds, water-works and other public utility enterprises. It should also be considered worth the time of the library to collect maps of other cities, both domestic and foreign, showing residence and industrial zones, harbor districts and transportation systems. All such maps and plats are of value to city officials, engineers, teachers, students and social workers.

The municipal reference library has demonstrated that it has its place in the scheme of municipal government and that it performs duties which do not impinge upon, overlap or duplicate those of any other department. Experience has shown that the library should operate and function from quarters in the city hall. It is not necessary to obtain a large amount of space for the library in the city hall but sufficient space should be obtained to provide for the librarian, a stenographer and proper shelving. Every municipality should provide space in its city hall for a municipal reference library. A resolution is now pending before the Chicago City Council providing that whenever a new subdivision of land is platted in the city limits, space must be set aside in such new subdivision for a public school and playground before the plat of the same can be or will be approved by the city authorities. In this way future generations will be saved large and unnecessary expenditures for school and playground purposes due to the increment in land values. Each future city hall built by a municipality should similarly be required to have set aside sufficient space on one of its floors for the establishment of a municipal reference library as a necessary part of municipal housekeeping and

economy. In the city of Chicago upon the completion of the present City Hall in the year 1911 the Chicago City Council set aside 3,500 square feet for the use of the Municipal Reference Library, the dimensions of the room being seventy feet in length by fifty feet in width. Steel book stacks and filing cases, a large oak reading table with a glass top, desk and telephone for the use of the employes were installed in the room. In addition to the foregoing the library is equipped with suitable storage room and vault space.

In obtaining an allotment of space for the library it is suggested that the same be obtained adjacent or convenient to the council chamber or to the council committee rooms for obvious reasons.

The tendency some years ago to place the administration and control over the municipal reference library in the public library seemingly has been justified wherever such has been the practice. It is in accord with the wider trend prevalent in municipal affairs of consolidating and coordinating like functions and services in municipal administration and preventing duplication of effort by the creation of a multiplicity of independent organizations and departments. Basically, however, the leading reasons for placing the municipal reference library under the control of the public library are that the latter is not subject to the changes and fluctuations incident to other branches of the public service, that it has more standardization, has developed principles as to continuity of service, has the necessary scientific, technical, educational and mechanical equipment required to supplement the work of the municipal reference library and last and perhaps most important is happily free from the odor, taint and turmoil of local partisan politics.

The Chicago Municipal Reference Library placed under the supervision and control of the Chicago Public Library has been fortunate in effecting and receiving the cooperation of the staff of the latter in all its numerous branches. A messenger service has been arranged between the two libraries and the vast resources of the main library are readily placed at the disposal of the Municipal Reference Library in the least possible space of time. The very helpful advice and cooperation of Mr. Henry E. Legler, Librarian of the Chicago Public Library, has enabled the Municipal Reference Library to cater to an increasing patronage, caused it to avoid pitfalls and dangers,

which undetected would have impaired its usefulness and effectiveness and to steer a straight and true course in the service it has rendered to city officials and employes.

WITHIN INSTITUTION WALLS

The United States Bureau of Education Report on public libraries, issued in 1876, states that, according to the latest information, there were then forty prison libraries in the United States, with collections varying in size from 40 volumes (State Penitentiary of Florida) to 9000 (Pennsylvania State Penitentiary at Philadelphia, started in 1829).

To quote this report:

> Prison libraries owe their origin to the benevolence of individuals and societies, stimulated by the appeals of statesmen and philanthropists like Livingston, Seward, Sumner, Mann, Dwight, Bacon, Howe, Miss Dix and a host of others who, forty years ago, devoted themselves to inculcating correct views as to the purposes of imprisonment, eradicating the evils which beset prison administration, and ameliorating the condition of prisoners. Their efforts laid the foundations of many prison libraries, the beneficial influences of which were sooner or later recognized by legislators, so that now, in many of the states, the prison libraries receive a regular annual grant from the public treasury for their increase and maintenance. In 1845, after four years' personal study and observation of the penitentiaries, jails and almshouses in the northern and middle states, with occasional visits to others adjacent, Miss D. L. Dix made a report in which will be found a thorough discussion of the several questions of prison management, and much information regarding the reformatory agencies employed.

In her report Miss Dix mentions only eleven prison libraries. Library service for the unfortunates in city or state institutions at present, in great measure, necessitates a selection of literature ordinarily classed for home reading, whether the end served be that of amusement or study. When the importance of reading and study becomes sufficiently recognized by prison and hospital

authorities, it should be evident that the inclusion of a large number of general reference books is not only desirable but imperative.

AN OPINION FROM AN EX-CONVICT

This unknown writer, in a few direct words, has outlined an almost limitless opportunity of the library and suggested methods necessary to secure the confidence of prison inmates.

The librarian of a prison, to be successful, must have the confidence of the men. He should not be a part of the official system of the prison. Except where life is at stake, he should not spy on the actions of the men, otherwise he will lose their confidence and all influence among them. He should be appointed for a term of at least five years, it being understood that the first year will be devoted to becoming acquainted personally with the men, or as he should regard it, with "the public in prison." He should study the men so that he may determine what kind of books are suited to their capacities and needs, and this is far more essential than technical knowledge of library work.

Such a librarian could not carry on his work with the best success if he were appointed by the prison authorities and were paid by the state. The only way to keep him independent and effective is to gain permission from the state to appoint such a man, his salary to be paid by an outside agency, such as the Prison Library Association.

The library should be made up of three classes of books. (1) Fiction should be the largest section. The books should be written in plain, clear language; they should be interesting, exciting and should make the good attractive. Such books as those of Dumas, for example, should be excluded, for while well written and interesting, they make the bad attractive. One knows that his characters are not good people, and yet one finishes reading his books with an admiration for them. Novels on the shelves of the prisons should uniformly exalt and glorify the good. (2) The second important section of the library should be made up of books which may be classed as standard literature, including drama, poetry, essays, standard

novels from the great writers of the world. This need not be so large a class as the others. (3) The other section should be made up of technical books, textbooks and such books as are used by the correspondence schools, books by which the convict may educate himself, books on machinery, arts and crafts, etc.

Such a library is recommended on the following theory: The majority of convicts do not read at all before they go to prison, unless possibly the New York Journal and similar papers. They can be interested to read only through such novels as have been suggested. The educated class of men will read the books in the second section without urging, but the capable prison librarian could lead a large number from the reading of the first class of books to the second class. The third class of books recommended appeals to the creative sense of the convict who finds peculiar pleasure in studying how to do things with his hands.

A librarian appointed and empowered as above described, and with books properly chosen, can be a greater influence in penal institutions than either schools or religion. The influence must be always of a personal kind and, as mentioned above, an essential prerequisite to success is to gain and hold the confidence of the men.

POSSIBILITIES OF LIBRARY WORK IN STATE INSTITUTIONS

The author of this article, Miss Miriam Eliza Carey, was born at Peoria, Illinois, February 21, 1858. She was educated at Oberlin College and the University of Chicago; also, during 1898 and 1899, she was a student of the University of Illinois Library School. Her first work was in the Public Library of Burlington, Iowa. From 1906 to 1909 she served as supervisor of libraries in state insane and penal institutions of Iowa. This was the first appointment of the kind in the United States. Since that time she has had the position of supervising librarian under the Minnesota State Board of Control.

The people to whom books mean most are not the happy, prosperous people. They are the poor, the lonely and the unfortunate. Among the unfortunate must be included those who, because of moral, intellectual or physical defects, are set apart from society and placed in various state institutions.

What about libraries in these places? Do they exist? If so, under what conditions? What are the possibilities of such libraries?

In most states, books and periodicals are considered worth while in these institutions, and libraries are provided. As a rule, these collections of books are scattered and unorganized; they are administered by persons having duties outside the libraries which occupy most of their time; the "librarians" receive no compensation for their library work as such and are chosen without regard to special qualifications for it. Under such circumstances library service is apt to be intermittent; great pains are taken to keep account of books as property, often to an extent that hinders their free use; books are selected with little regard to the needs or tastes of the inmates themselves, and are seldom chosen by a thoroughly competent person.

The setting of an institution library is often something like this—vast buildings or groups of smaller edifices, set in park-like grounds, an army of persons to administer affairs and crowds of society's undesirables of whom there are two groups: (1) those who will return to society; (2) those who must remain within the walls as long as they live. Methods for helping both classes to a larger life by means of books are what we wish to examine today.

There is one fact which must be regarded as the salient point of the whole matter and that is this: every institution, even those for the feeble-minded and insane, contains a group of readers. If the question is raised, "Why be concerned about institutions?" the answer is simply, "Because they contain so many readers." Why should library organizations and librarians study the needs of the institutions? Because there are so many readers in them.

In any community conformity to rules and regulations is a necessity. Therefore in centers where one roof shelters a thousand human beings, for example, there must be a regular régime. One of the features of this régime is the setting apart some portion of each day during which the inmate is not at large. He is either in his own room or he is relegated to some general gathering place where he must occupy himself as best he can. This is the condition which results in the demand for something to read. For all "shut-ins" the best means of recreation and uplift is furnished by good books. It is fortunate for the new arrival at an institution if he finds suitable books to lead him to renew the habit of reading acquired in earlier years, or for the first time to form this habit.

In studying the possibilities of library work in institutions, the class which will eventually return to homes, friends and social duties demands our first consideration. Two general principles may be laid down which apply in varying degrees to each of this group, namely, (1) that the reading habit trained and strengthened in the institution will furnish a permanent resource for pleasure and profit in the outside life; (2) that the administration of the institution library according to methods in use in the outside world will provide agreeable employment for a few inmates and create familiarity with library customs in all. By these means each discharged inmate goes from the institution endowed with two very good safeguards—the reading habit and the library habit.

To train and strengthen the reading habit, books which have been intelligently selected are a prime necessity. The selection of books for institution readers has many interesting phases of which perhaps the most important is the necessity of knowing something of local conditions before the books are chosen, as, for example, the educational, industrial and recreational occupations of the inmates. Prisoners especially feel an intense interest in the occupations which help them to pass away the long hours and this often leads to a desire for something to read that deals with the work in hand. Prisoners to a surprisingly large number are taking correspondence courses along various lines. These facts should guide the book selection for a prison. Easy books are another necessity, if there is to be any endeavor to help an illiterate to use the library.

Besides the occupational and the easy books there are also the recreational, which must be selected with special regard to local conditions. What is wanted is the interesting and inspiring, the vigorous, the hopeful, the absorbing; what is not wanted is the morbid, the sensual, the false, the introspective, the pessimistic or the merely good. Literary standards are of less importance in these libraries than elsewhere, yet the person who selects the books should be so familiar with these standards as to be able to disregard them intelligently and select solely from the standpoint of the inmates.

The fact that the majority of the inmates of prisons and reformatories are to leave the institution in the course of time has been ignored too long. Everything that will tend to make these men good citizens should be provided by the state in its own interest. Think of the short-sighted policy of those who do not put good libraries into prisons! Think of the lost opportunity to reach the individual and put into his hands almost the only thing in the world which is intrinsically the same within the walls as without!

The old conception of a criminal class composed of men entirely different from ordinary mortals is not accepted today. The majority of men in prisons and reformatories are normal human beings gone wrong. To meet the requirements of such a constituency, the personality of the librarian has a peculiar importance. There must be a vital link connecting the book and the man. In many prisons the chaplain acts as the chief of the library department, and any man who has the qualifica-

tions to make a first-rate chaplain will make a better librarian than any other prison official would make. Better the chaplain than another—until it is possible to have a trained librarian at the head of the department. The ideal prison library staff would consist of a trained librarian as chief and deputy librarians from among the inmates. From the latter, the librarian would learn the prisoner's standpoint without which he could not hope to satisfy his readers. A trained librarian needs to have an open mind everywhere, but especially in institutions must he be willing to learn by direct contact with the inmates.

There would be no special advantage in having a trained librarian as chief as compared with a first-rate chaplain, unless the librarian partook of the good chaplain's spirit and was willing to get into close touch with the men. A librarian who was willing to go from cell to cell if necessary, and give direction and guidance, having by means of his training the resources of his own library and of others more completely at his command than any untrained official could have, would be able to bring all the forces locked up in books to bear upon the problems presented to him. What a mighty fulcrum would thus be put into service for the rehabilitation of men! Fortunate the state that is wise enough to recognize such possibilities.

While it is true that all inmates of institutions are shut in to a certain extent, yet most of them have considerable freedom to come and go. Let such persons be given a chance to learn about library customs. Introduce many features of outside libraries and let all but the technical parts of the work be done by the inmates. Whenever there are children or young people the opportunity to get into close touch with the library and to know about its mechanical appliances and operations should not be neglected. There are many valuable lessons not directly connected with books and reading which can be learned from pasting pockets, writing book cards, accessioning, arranging shelves, charging books and other processes.

The ability of children to do all these things has been demonstrated in Lincoln, Nebraska, where, under the auspices of the state library commission, there is a children's library in the orthopedic hospital, which is carried on by the children themselves. Under the supervision of Miss Waugh, of the library commission, these crippled children performed all the mechan-

ical work connected with installing a library. Imagine what it means to them to be actually running their own library! Think of the happiness which the daily tasks and dignified responsibilities of their office have brought into their lives!

Except where they can be handled in a degree by the inmates, the technical processes of library work mean little in state institutions and should be reduced to their lowest terms.

There is almost stern necessity for library work among girls in reform schools. They are not there for life. They return to their homes or to resume social relations with the outside world. Every time a girl is released from a reform school it is with the hope that she will be a good girl, live worthily, earn her living decently, and reflect credit on those who have tried to help her. All this which seems the natural thing for a woman to do is so very difficult for these girls that every means to fortify them against the world, the flesh and the devil should be at hand in the schools. One of these means is surely a love of good books and another is the library habit.

The ideal place for a library in such an institution is the schoolhouse. A reading room should be in connection with it, and the chief librarian should be the principal of the school. Under her direction deputy librarians chosen from the cottages in which the girls live should carry on the library and perform all the duties connected with it. They should also be held responsible for the choice of books in each cottage and should interest themselves in arousing those girls who have not the reading habit. In these ways the library is made an integral part of the daily life of the institution, and by means of the work in it the girls become familiar with details which will make public libraries attractive to them after leaving school.

Turning now to those who may be considered the life residents of institutions, we have to do with most of the insane, the feeble-minded and epileptic, and many convicts. To all these, books are of great importance as recreational and therapeutic agents. The feeble-minded and epileptic belong to that group in institutions who have little to look forward to beyond what the institution can provide. They are life residents.

At Faribault, Minnesota, there is a great family of this character. The inmates are always spoken of as "the children." Their condition, while sad, is wonderfully brightened by the

skill which detects latent talents and patiently cultivates them till the visitor is amazed at the artistic and useful articles which can be made by hands so unfortunate. The library is an important adjunct to the school. It is in charge of the principal, who has from her experience worked out a system which makes the use of the library one of the dignified honors of the place. A child who is considered capable of using books is allowed to "join the library." He is given his own card, even as you and I, and is instructed in the details of selecting his books from the catalog. He is taught to be careful of the books as property belonging equally to all, to be patient in waiting his turn to get the book they all want and that to abuse his privileges will be to forfeit the enjoyment of them. "Gee, but it's tough," exclaimed one such offender not long ago.

In the consideration of questions pertaining to libraries for the insane I cannot do better than to quote from the pamphlet by Miss Edith Kathleen Jones, librarian of the McLean Hospital, Waverley, Massachusetts.

Some sort of medical library in a modern hospital is an understood thing, but the organized central library for the use of the patients is a comparatively new idea. There are, however, over sixty hospitals in the United States and Canada that support central libraries and one or two have been able to achieve what is in many ways the ideal—the separate building devoted exclusively to stacks and reading rooms open every day to the patients and employees. Coming from a public or college library into one belonging to a state hospital one is immediately struck with the wholly different atmosphere. In the first place the collection of books is formed not for instruction, but for entertainment; it is a therapeutic, not an educational factor.

In contrast to Miss Jones's idea it must be stated that most hospitals do not have central libraries, but in different parts of the institution have bookcases which are in charge of some supervisor or attendant, who issues a book once or twice a week.

What is the attitude of the patients toward libraries? it may be asked. In the West there are many illiterate persons among the insane, but in every hospital and in each ward there are also educated people and others who wish to read. Shall the illiterate be considered in the choice of books for hospitals? If so, a certain amount of supervision must be given such readers that the books selected for them may get into their hands.

Being personally very much interested in these phases of the work I sent inquiries to a few friends who are in close touch with the insane. My questions were: (1) Do you believe that an insane person can acquire the reading habit after entering a hospital? (2) What books would you suggest, or have you used, for such a purpose?

In reply, Miss Jones of Waverley, Massachusetts, says:

We find that many of those who never had time or inclination to read while in the world, find it their greatest recreation here. I try to start these people with such light fiction as McCutcheon, Oppenheim and Joseph Lincoln among the men, and then lead up to Benson, Bennet, etc. The women read almost anything, but I find that the older ones like the old favorites, Miss Marlitt, Miss Alcott, Rosa N. Carey—the books they read in their youth.

Mr. Crumbacher of Independence, Iowa, writes:

I have known many patients to become regular library patrons who had read scarcely any before their admission to the hospital. The women seem to me much more likely to become readers than the men, but when the men do become readers they read a much heavier class of books than the women. I have known several men, who I feel certain have never read anything except newspapers before entering the hospital, to become regular readers of history, travel and biography and to get great enjoyment out of their reading. I have had an extraordinary success with the men by starting them in on Mark Twain. The women seem to take more to Crawford and E. P. Roe at first. I have also found Winston Churchill popular with the men. However, there are so very many surprises in what appeals to them that it seems to me rather hard to make any general statements.

Miss Rowe of the Clarinda, Iowa, Hospital tells of the case of a woman who was in the hospital and past thirty before she tried to learn to read, and who now reads at sight the Youth's Companion, Ladies' Home Journal and any books the others read. She spells very well and can tell something of most of the books she has read. The greatest gain is her desire to be helped to understand what she reads. Five years ago it was not safe to correct her in the mildest way; now it is "Did I read right?" "If it wasn't good I'll read again" or, "You know I want to do it right." Methods and books used in reaching this result were, first, the telling of stories—true things about animals and children from her own life and experiences; then the use of simple books, such as "Peggy,"

"Johnnie," "Tom Brown"; then Dickens and others that would touch them whenever they could be reached.

Mrs. Voldeng of the Cherokee, Iowa, State Hospital writes:

> I certainly do think an insane person can acquire the reading habit, at least the habit for good reading. I cite one instance. A young fellow about 24 years of age came to the library one morning and very noisily said: "I want something exciting; I want something blood and thunder; I want something yellow-back!" I said, "Arthur, just calm yourself. We have nothing yellow-back, as you call it, but we do have exciting things!" I took from the shelf a volume of Mark Twain's detective stories. He looked at me a moment as much as to say "Well, your idea of the blood and thunder doesn't come up to mine." However, he took the book and a week later returned saying: "That's the best book I ever read." I asked him if it was exciting enough, and he replied, "It was exciting and it was good." After this he came to the library regularly. It was intensely interesting to me to note the change in his literary taste after just a little directing.

Thus experience has shown each of these librarians that it is possible to create a habit for good reading in an insane person. One of them goes further and shows that an illiterate can be taught the use of books after entering the hospital. That this is possible for many is a belief shared by more than one superintendent with whom I have discussed this matter. The re-education of the insane, their going to school in the old-fashioned way, is believed by some to be the next step forward in their treatment, and one likely to be taken by more than one institution before many years pass. Whatever the future may develop in this line—and great changes are to be expected—the present contains enough to occupy the attention of librarians. From all directions there are calls for lists of books for the insane. What sort of books are to be recommended? Shall we disregard the possibility of the illiterate's becoming a reader? Is the book a therapeutic agent? Shall the library be selected for the patients or for the whole population, sane and insane? What is the function of such a library? Is it educational or recreational?

Believing from what I had seen in Iowa that it was possible for an illiterate to acquire the reading habit and for any insane person to be mentally quickened and strengthened by means of the right books, I once set out to select five hundred titles to

be used as a basis for ten traveling libraries which were to circulate from one hospital to another in the state of Minnesota.

I had a recipe which I followed in putting together each group of 50 volumes; this called for 30 works of fiction and 20 nonfiction. The latter was made up from poetry, biography, travel, history and outdoor life. The fiction included simple home stories, love stories, historical novels, tales of daring deeds and stories about children and animals. A few were selected merely because they were small and one or two because they were very easy, and specially adapted to persons who could not read readily. I still think this is an excellent recipe. But like many another pet scheme, it has one great fault—it will not work, at least in traveling libraries which are to move to hospitals without trained librarians. In the first place, I soon found that I had about twice as much nonfiction as I needed. Then I noticed that the small books were very unpopular. I could not get that precious *Birds' Christmas Carol* read at all and finally made a special trip to a near-by asylum and read it aloud to the ladies as a prelude to Christmas week. My simple stories were not very popular either, unless they were very cleverly disguised as to title. With great hesitation and with the hope that my colleagues would never discover it, I added *The Brass Bowl* to one library, and it gave me so much satisfaction, passing from hand to hand among the readers of an institution for incurables, that I learned a lesson as to the necessity for something absorbingly interesting in books for the insane. The easy books that I searched for so carefully were of no use at all, unless there was some one at hand to stir an interest in them. Readers for whom they are intended never come in contact with them of their own initiative. So in preparing a traveling library I no longer add books of this character, as there is no one in the hospitals in my state who can use them as they must be used.

The possibilities of library work in institutions which I have thus suggested in outline are not wholly dreams. To a certain extent they are actualities in a few states at the present time, especially in Iowa, Nebraska and Minnesota. In Iowa the board of control of state institutions employs a supervising librarian. This office is entirely independent of any library organization. In Nebraska, on the contrary, the state library commission has obtained from the legislature an appropriation for the institu-

tion work to be expended at the discretion of the commission. There is a librarian in charge of this work exclusively, having both funds and authority to establish the best library standards. In Minnesota the organizer of the library commission divides her time between the institutions and public libraries. The former are regarded as having as full a claim upon the commission's resources as the latter. The Indiana commission has done and is doing much good work through its organizer. The same is true in Ohio. Much has been done in the state of New York to raise the standard of the prison and reformatory libraries.

It would seem then that there are at least three ways of promoting library efficiency in state institutions: (1) by putting in each a trained librarian; (2) by providing a supervisor to direct and control a group of libraries; (3) by including the institutions in the field of library commissions. The first of these methods seems Utopian, but it need not be so if the institutions can be brought to realize all that the training of a librarian may mean to them in departments other than the library. It is quite possible to give a librarian a full day in even a small institution.

A supervisor of a group of libraries is desirable not merely to keep books in order and provide statistics, nor yet solely to select books, but to get into touch with the people and literally put into their hands the books that will do them the most good. In every school she should have a place as instructor about books, authors and library customs; in hospitals she might very well lecture to nurses as to books best adapted to patients and everywhere the supervisor should circulate herself as well as her books, so to speak. Reading aloud and story-telling are just as effective and delightful in institutions as elsewhere.

Where political influence is injuriously felt in state institutions, the best way to standardize the libraries is through the library commission or the state library department. Theirs also is the duty of enlightening institution officials as to the value to themselves of good library service. The great aim of the library commission working in institutions should be to bring up the standard of local library service and urge the importance of making the library a distinct department with a qualified officer in charge of it.

If, as the creed of our profession declares, books are more than mere reading matter, if they are tools designed to accomplish specific ends both for the individual and for society, then the need of trained skill in the handling and application of these tools is especially great in the state institutions which deal so largely with the abnormal and diseased, and a great field for practical philanthropy and professional library service is opened up to the trained and altruistic library worker.

IN UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES

The ideas of Mr. Robert Stillman Fletcher may properly introduce those of other writers grouped under this division of university libraries; they are, of course, as applicable to students who work within the walls of any library equipped for scholarly adventure. Research, it seems, need not bear the charge of deadliness if vision accompanies it.

The paragraphs quoted are taken from a paper entitled "The College Library and Research Work" prepared by Mr. Fletcher, librarian of Amherst College, and read at the Conference of the American Library Association in 1913.

I shall suppose then, that research work is of two kinds, both important, but one of them much more important than the other. The first and most common kind is that ordinarily done by the graduate student in the university. It is the gathering of material—the collection of information on some particular phase of some particular subject—and is not only of value in itself, but when taken together with the work done by other students along related lines becomes part of the structure on which scholarship is built. We may call it analytical research work. The other kind is that done by the man of clear vision and wide outlook, mature enough to see that the analytical work is merely material for a bigger thing—call it what you will—the man who can take the information others have collected and impart it in the form of culture. This is synthetic research work. Now the university has much of the former, some of the latter. The college has need only of the synthetic. If its place in the educational world is to be permanent, its contribution to education must be cultural. The type of teacher it needs, and I believe must have, is the man who has done, or is capable of doing, synthetic research work. In his hands teaching takes on a vitality, a spontaneity, a genuineness that no one else

can give it. That the book collection of the average college would be sufficient for the needs of men like this is out of the question. There would inevitably arise a demand for the purchase of works of an entirely different kind—a demand that would have to be at least partially met. This demand would be for research material, by which I mean the results of research work, and the problem of such a college library would become a problem in discrimination—the decision as to what of this material it should try to obtain.

It ought not to be difficult to draw a clear distinction between analytical and synthetic research material. Illustrations of the first will readily occur to you, one as good as any being the usual thesis submitted for the doctor's degree. All "source" material is necessarily analytical—is the result of a careful, painstaking, often laborious search for information; information that may illuminate some dark corner of the field of knowledge. But it is never itself illumined by the spark of genius, nor wrought by the loving hand of the artist. It is merely the wood and the stone out of which a complete structure may some day arise.

Now how does the synthetic conception of research apply to history? A modern German writer has compressed the whole significance of it into a sentence: "The writing of History," he says, "is just as truly a *will toward a picture* as it is a knowledge of sources." In other words synthesis of the kind referred to is always the work of the artist, and in the nature of things becomes thereby a contribution to culture. Gibbon's *Decline and fall of the Roman empire,* Lamprecht's *History of Germany,* Rhodes' *History of the United States*—these are all synthetic; each one existed first as a picture in the mind of the artist, not merely as an array of sources from which the facts of history might be drawn.

THE LIBRARY IN THE UNIVERSITY

Dr. Arthur Twining Hadley, in an address before the Connecticut Library Association, February 3, 1909, at New Haven, lays special emphasis upon the importance of a love of literature which has been more or less sacrificed in the modern zeal for information.

Dr. Hadley was born in New Haven, Connecticut, April 23, 1856, and graduated from Yale University in the class of 1876. He has received from Yale, Columbia, Harvard and Johns Hopkins Universities the degree of LL.D. He has long been associated with Yale University as instructor and professor and as its president from 1899 to 1921, and is now President Emeritus.

In comparing the position and problems of a university library with those of other libraries, public or private, I hardly know whether to lay stress on the likeness or the unlikeness.

In the university, as in any other community, the users of the library may be roughly divided into two classes, those who seek enjoyment and those who seek information. In the university, as elsewhere, those who seek information may be further subdivided into the casual inquirers, who want to find out something about a particular topic; the students, who wish to store their minds with systematic knowledge of the facts and methods pertaining to a somewhat broader theme; and the real investigators, who are trying to do work of research which shall advance the powers of human thought. But the proportionate size of the different classes is not the same in the university that it is outside. The specific demands of the different classes are not the same. And, what makes most difference of all, the university library is able to exercise a control over this proportion and these demands in far greater degree than is possible with most of our municipal libraries.

This last, I think, is the really fundamental fact which distinguishes the problems of university library administration from those of any other library. A city library must meet the

wants of the citizens. It can to some degree shape those wants; it can to some degree create a demand for one kind of books rather than another, by the educational effect of its policy on the community as a whole; but this process is a slow and incidental one. Primarily the library is there to meet a need already existing. The university library, on the contrary, can create a demand almost as rapidly as it can meet one. The character of the library and the library administration has a powerful influence on the kind of students that resort to a university. The work of those students after they get there is determined in large measure by the sort of facilities which the library offers. They will take the kind of training for which the library affords facilities. They will leave undeveloped the sides of intellectual life for which the library affords inadequate opportunity.

In the older days our college libraries were means of enjoyment rather than of research. In the biographies of great men of a former generation there is no phrase which recurs more constantly than this: "His work in the class room gave no promise of his future distinction. He preferred to spend his time browsing in the alcoves of the library." And, even among those who resorted to the library for information rather than enjoyment, the spirit of research in the modern sense was rather conspicuously absent. They sought to secure a collection of facts on a particular topic, rather than to train themselves in systematic methods of investigation. They followed the old formula for preparing a prize composition, which, as nearly as my memory will serve me, runs as follows: "Take four parts of Poole's Index, well mixed and triturated; dissolve in two parts of a liquid composed of equal proportions of extracts from Buckle's History of civilization and Benton's Thirty years' view of the American government; flavor to suit the taste." At the time when I was in college, 35 years ago, the particular solvents prescribed in the formula had already become somewhat antiquated; but the picture in general was substantially a true one. The majority of the occupants of the Linonian and Brothers Library were quietly reading, in a somewhat indiscriminate manner, the things that happened to suit their fancy. The minority were actively engaged in recurrent pilgrimages between the two copies of Poole's Index and the bound files of the various magazines. Fifteen or twenty years later things

were in a good deal the same condition. Buckle had given place to Spencer, Benton to Bryce; Poole's Index had taken on a new dress and gained prodigiously in voluminosity. But these were merely changes of detail. The general spirit and method remained the same.

Down to about 1885 the real research work of a university, so far as it concerned itself with books, was chiefly done in the libraries of the professors themselves or in the special libraries—sometimes deposited in the general library building of the university and sometimes not—which enthusiasts had collected for particular purposes. There was a separation between the researches which were being conducted at a university, whether by its professors or its students, and the general administration of the library, which it is today hard to understand. One of the professors of the old school—and, I may add, one of the more enlightened professors of the old school—said to me only a few years ago, "I conceive that the chief educational use of a university library is to lend an occasional book to a professor who does not happen to have that book in his own library." He regarded the university library as a sort of museum; the actual laboratories where the work was done were the special libraries of the professors.

The last 20 years have witnessed a radical change in this respect. The great multiplication of books and periodicals in many departments of science has made it impossible for any but the wealthiest professors to have private libraries which would meet the needs of research. The increasing number and variety of the researches undertaken by the students has rendered the old-fashioned departmental library inadequate as a place for such research. The university library has had to meet these needs, and to meet them on a large scale. An institution which does not give facilities for research to the younger instructors and the graduate students cannot attract either instructors or graduate students of the type that it wants. It is no longer a museum; it is an enormous group of laboratories, covering almost every conceivable subject of human interest.

This need of providing for advanced research on a large scale has given the distinctive characteristics to the university library development of today. The university library must spend relatively large amounts of money on current periodicals

as compared with books, because there more than anywhere else are exemplified the results and methods of current research. It must arrange its books not solely or primarily with reference to the needs of the library staff, but with reference to the needs of the various groups of students which will resort to its shelves. It is not primarily a collection of reading matter; it is an instrument of productive activity.

In fact, one of our great dangers in the university today is that in our use of books as instruments of research we should forget their use as means of enjoyment; just as in the whole activity of our institutions of learning, outside of the libraries as well as inside of them, there is sometimes danger that in the struggle for scientific discovery and professional efficiency we should forget the importance of general culture or love of learning. We have been substituting a German conception of a university for an English one. We have been superadding a group of professional and technical schools upon the old culture course of the college, until the spirit of culture is in danger of being crushed under the load. We have got very far away from the old days when incipient geniuses browsed at will in the alcoves of the library. The whole metaphor is something foreign to the ideas of today. The idea of the library as a pasture ground, or of the students who resort to it as cows, snatching here and there a mouthful of grass to be digested at leisure, does not faithfully reflect either the appearance or the spirit of the present time. In this matter, as in others, I suspect that we may have gone a little too far in substituting German ideals for English ones. For a university is, as President Wilson says, a place where the many are trained for the love of science and letters, and a few only to their successful pursuit. We sacrifice much if in training specialists we cease to train cultivated gentlemen of the old school; and one of the best characteristics of the cultivated gentleman of the old school was his love of a kind of enjoyment which could be obtained only from the deliberate reading of books for purposes other than mere information.

The distinctive thing about a university is its atmosphere. Most of us, I think, are old-fashioned enough to believe that this atmosphere should be essentially one of culture. We welcome in our university libraries to the fullest degree the spirit and the methods of modern scientific research; but we hope

that it may be also possible to retain that subtle influence toward the love of literature in its higher forms which made even the meager libraries of our New England colleges of a former generation places to which the mind of many an old student reverts with affection because they opened his eyes to the widest vision of what life was and what made it worth living.

FIVE OBJECTIVES OF A UNIVERSITY LIBRARY

The University of Washington has issued this article of Mr. William Elmer Henry, librarian of the university, in booklet form.

As usual Mr. Henry is clear, practical and farseeing in his statements. The fifth "Objective" in his plan for an ideal University library, that of housing the collection, of necessity is omitted here.

We all recall our childhood attempts to step upon our own shadows, or by rapid turns and swift movements to separate ourselves from them. Later we come to comprehend that these are the essential practices of our whole after lives, either to surpass ourselves or to withdraw from ourselves, finding idealism, hope on one side, pessimism, despair on the other.

The picture of our ideals sets forth for us our real selves more clearly in both our individual and our institutional activities than our experiences, our actualities do. "What we would do and could not" strengthens us and expresses our kinship with the infinite. He who can accomplish all he would is the lowest type of man. Confession of regret after sincere effort is evidence of infinite aspiration hampered by finite power. It compliments our pride and confesses our limitations. "Man is a god though in the germ," and this gives hope of infinity in eternity. It has been said that where we stand at any given time is not of serious concern, but the direction in which we are attempting to move is a matter of very vital significance.

Under such conditions I wish to set forth a librarian's ideals of a University Library. Ideals cannot be too exalted if within the limits of the possible. They may be too low, too limited, and usually are.

I shall attempt, then, to set forth in brief form and with little discussion the ideals that have grown, in my thirty years of library service, to be as much a part of myself, of the very

essence of me, as are my daily habits, as life itself. They are not fully realized yet, and they cannot be while this institution has life and growth. I am placing the goal a long way ahead, but to reach it would convert a heaven into a hell, for an ideal realized becomes at once a disappointment.

The ideals of the library are already set forth and outlined in the word "university." The very word "university" suggests wholeness, completeness, and the library is a part of the institution—the most vital and essential single unit of that completeness.

I want to discuss the five objectives of a University Library:

1. The objective of content
2. The objective of assembling and organizing
3. The objective of distribution for service
4. The objective of staff
5. The objective of housing for preservation and service

The first essential of a library, great or small, is its content, its working material, the record of human experience which it contains, for no library contains or can contain anything else. Communication among men is the very source of education and of civilization, in fact almost a synonym. As men have become acquainted and mingled together they have become familiar with each other's environment and experience and that abstract thing which we call culture and its external manifestation, civilization, have resulted. Abstractly stated, the library is classified and organized human experience. The vicarious element in life is more apparent in the library than elsewhere. The fact is that each lives for all and all for each, that the individual ascends to infinite heights by building his life's experience on all preceding life.

This fixes the ideal content of the University Library. It should contain the sum total of the essence of human experience, so far as it has been recorded. This does not mean that each library shall have or even should have, all the books that have been written, for that would largely duplicate many times its essential content. It does mean, however, that the great university library should possess as much of the human record as can be used for either of two distinct but related ends in institutional or academic education.

First, the more elementary experiences in various lines for

the undergraduate, that in his four years he may know the main lines of experience and become fairly familiar with the few that interest him most. These constitute his major and his minors as an undergraduate, and give him at least a key and a passport to further investigation if he is interested. These permit him to see that the road is infinite and whether or not he may care to spend his life upon it. This is the undergraduate university. When Cardinal Newman described the service of a university he admirably characterized what I have in mind as the undergraduate service of such an institution. He says:

> But a university training is the great ordinary means to a great but ordinary end; it aims at raising the intellectual tone of society, at cultivating the public mind, at purifying the national taste, at supplying the true principles to popular enthusiasm and fixed aims to popular aspiration, at giving enlargement and sobriety to the ideas of the age, at facilitating the exercise of political power and refining the intercourse of private life.

Second, it must contain the advanced and complicated experience, so that he who would travel far may have access to a sufficiently complete record in his chosen field of interest; that he may summarize the total essential experience in a significant, but very restricted field; that he who cares to enter new experiences in the chosen area may have the benefit and care of a guide so far as human experience has blazed the way, and an invitation into the fields of the unknown. This is his graduate work, and the measure of value for his doctorate is the distance he has penetrated into the wilderness of the unknown, the accuracy of his observations and the adequacy of his record.

So the university must supply the record for these journeys in experience and a faculty who shall be the guides. The faculty, however, is not my present concern, yet I should like to hope that the teaching shall be done with such freshness, simplicity, candor and vigor that it shall retain or reawaken in the student: "1. The simplicity to wonder; 2. the ability and desire to question; 3. the power to generalize; and 4. the capacity to apply." For no university man or woman dares forget the calamitous fact that remains to haunt all progressive people, that really "worthwhile thinking has been done and will continue to be done by a small and very select company and that all vital human action will be initiated by a few."

So, with a great collection of classified and organized human experience, the University is fitted to lead men and women to the confines of the known and to project for them short journeys beyond these limits and into the unknown. This means a large, expensive and highly organized collection. No educational institution has a claim or right to usurp the name of university nor to establish a graduate school if it has not accumulated or is not rapidly securing such an organized collection, a great library.

The second of these objectives, that of organizing and assembling, is that the material must be so organized that those in charge of library equipment shall know the specific location of each item and shall be able to produce it for use on call in the shortest time consistent with a comprehensive collection in a spacious building; and that the collection however large or varied, shall be assembled as one collection, so that the entire library equipment possessed by the institution shall be located in one building. This does not mean, however, that there shall not be a book on the campus that is not in the library. On the contrary there may be books on the campus not in the library building and not a part of the university library. Everyone who has worked in a university will clearly recognize that in connection with every laboratory there should be a small collection, usually very small, that is necessary to have at hand in experimental work. This should be provided, kept in the laboratory under the jurisdiction of the department served, and should be no part of and owe no allegiance to the library.

While the library collection shall have its home in the great building, the most imposing and most centrally situated on the campus, it does not even imply that every professor shall find his way across the campus each time he needs to consult a book. That plan is antiquated, expensive, cumbersome and time consuming. How can we explain our economy if we demand that a five thousand dollar man walk across the campus to get a book when a telephone call and a two dollar a day boy with a bicycle or auto can deliver the book to the professor's office almost while the professor is asking, within three to five minutes. Then all books will be where they belong—those not in the library shall be in the hands of the user, all others on the shelf in the library ready for service.

The third objective, distribution for service, then, is that any book that may leave the building may be delivered into the hands of a professor or graduate student almost instantly upon telephone call and returned to the library by the same process when it shall have served the borrower.

The fourth objective, that of staff for a great university library, is the most important, next to the book equipment itself. Without the staff even the books are of slight use in the hands of most students, and a much depreciated service even in the hands of the skillful. I name the library staff; that body of well-educated, scholarly inclined, personally devoted men and women who gladly give their time, energy and life itself in unselfish devotion to helping others accomplish their desires, and without thought of personal gain or self aggrandizement. I know of no service that requires for its success more complete unselfish devotion of the individual to the good of others than that of library service.

The efficient staff of the great university library is composed of two very distinct types of persons on the basis of the kind of service rendered. They are not, however, unlike in their scholarly tendencies nor in their devotion to the service of others. One group is the organizing group, who organize human experience into a closely and logically related whole or series of related units as the architect organizes building materials into a unified building. These are less related directly to personal service, yet every act of their professional career is for the service of, to them, an unknown individual, but a conscious and devoted service none the less. These are not designated to the world as scholars, nor enumerated in the ranks of scholars, yet that is their distinctive characteristic. They are scholars in definite lines, usually more general in their grasp than the faculty, but none the less definite and accurate, although less likely to be producers either as speakers or writers on a specific subject.

This is the larger group, in fact the chief group, and frequently the only group of scholars found in our present day libraries. They are the technical librarians on the side of organization. Beyond the organization service we have as yet progressed but a short distance. The so-called reference librarian, whether one or many, is the only member of the present staff who has gone beyond the province of organ-

ization, and he usually branches off and finds a part of his service in that field. He is usually the only member of the staff known to, and therefore the only one appreciated by the student investigator. The reference librarian has the strong support and commendation of research worker and investigator, because these persons consciously need the service of the reference librarian. They remain in ignorance of and frequently in indifference to the dozen or hundred others in the staff just as valuable, just as competent and just as devoted in their respective lines, and without whom the reference librarian would be of no avail.

The second group of the staff yet to be developed is an organized group of reference or service librarians, a battery of research helpers. Upon taking charge of this library in 1906, I said to the then President that the university library must develop a group of specialized, scholarly, reference librarians, all of whom shall be familiar with bibliographic methods and each shall be a master bibliographer in some special field which is strongly represented in the faculty and in the book collection. There is quite as much reason for having a reference librarian in each of the well defined fields of scholarship and investigation as there is for having a group of professors in that field attached to the faculty. The professors will need much bibliographic help if they are alive and economic, and the students in that line will need bibliographic assistance which the professor cannot adequately and economically give, if he serves well in his own province.

It is not only unfair, but shows a lamentable lack of comprehension of the nature and scope of scholarship to expect one or two reference librarians to know well the bibliography of all the subjects that make up the curriculum of a university. Should we find such a person, his salary should exceed that of any one on the teaching staff.

We have expected our professors and our advanced investigators to seek out their own bibliographical references, to list them, and to organize them. Upon the whole this means doing a great deal of hard labor that is in no sense a test, and shows no triumph in skill, in the work that distinguishes the scholar and investigator. His test comes in being able to marshall and organize all that is known upon his specific thesis, to concentrate that knowledge and to focus it upon the point at issue.

It should be no essential part of his work to find and list references. Such a method is not economic for the individual nor for the growth of scholarship. Men with special scholarly tendencies and insight should be relieved of all the drudgery that is not an essential part of their service in organizing material and concentrating it toward their theses.

We do not expect the carpenter to go to the forest and cut his lumber, nor the brick mason to spend weeks in the clay banks and the brick mills. We do not expect the physician to seek out the herbs and distill his medicines. We expect him to show his masterly skill in selecting and combining and reenforcing what others have found and distilled. In his concentrating all to the cure of disease, we lose sight of the others who have made his skill useful to humanity. He has been relieved of non-essential drudgery.

I am not proposing here any new and untried theory of library administration and efficiency. I am only going a little farther than others have gone, so far as I know, much farther than it has been possible for us to go, but not farther than we must go if our library is to be the handmaid of genuine scholarship in its advances into the realm of the now unknown.

When I speak of the bibliographic work from which the investigator should be relieved as drudgery, I do not mean to imply that such work would be drudgery for the reference librarian. For him it is the business of life, his very soul. By that he lives in the finest sense of that word, that others may have more abundant life.

The undergraduate goes as far as the road is cut out. Anyone can do that. The graduate student, the advance agent of scholarship, the seeker after new worlds, must advance beyond the end of the road and must cross the borders into the wilderness, into the unknown. He is the rare and refined spirit, and it is not economic to have him serve as the pack horse to transport the luggage, however necessary the luggage may be.

THE LIBRARY AS A UNIVERSITY FACTOR

While Dr. William Dawson Johnston was librarian of Columbia University the following paper was presented by him at the Annual Conference of the Association of American Universities, held at the University of Illinois, in 1913. It is a serious treatise upon departmental libraries, their importance and function; he lays emphasis, however, upon the fact that they should remain under the management of the general library.

In our efforts to define the ideals of education there has been a tendency to neglect the study of the means. This has been especially true, it seems to me, of our study of higher education. This is well illustrated by our failure to study the University library problem.

This failure is due, perhaps, to a feeling that these practical problems are special in character and should be left to the specialist to solve. It is due also, I believe, to the rather common conception of a library as a building or collection of books rather than as a form of service.

In the time allowed me for the discussion of the library as a University factor I wish to point out that our most perplexing and perhaps most important library problems are problems of University organization rather than of library administration, and so problems for the University administrator rather than the librarian. I wish also to make it clear that the administrative problems of the library staff are problems of instruction primarily, rather than problems of clerical attendance and mechanical dexterity.

To What Extent Is Consolidation And Centralization Of Libraries Of A University Desirable?

Among all University library questions the most important and most puzzling is that of the relation between the several

libraries of the University. There are still some who would solve this question, or profess that they would solve it, by consolidation of all libraries in one building. All who have given the question serious thought, however, realize that considerations of space and time alone make consolidation of libraries undesirable.

The importance of the department library in professional schools of law and medicine, and in departments devoted to natural and applied science has long been recognized. The libraries of these schools and departments are ordinarily separate and distinct collections of books. Their separation from the general library is justified by the nature of their use either as independent bodies of literature or in connection with laboratory work. For these reasons also they are rarely duplicated in the general library.

Within the last decade the establishment of department reading-rooms within the domain of the humane sciences also has become common. These are intended especially for the use of students in history and the social sciences, for students in literature and for undergraduate students. They comprise the more important part of the books designated as required reading and consist largely, if not altogether, of duplicates of books in the general library. They are located near the lecture rooms simply to facilitate the reading of students between lecture periods, and are justified, it seems to me, only by the extent of their use.

How far the development of department libraries should be allowed to go, especially in the humane sciences, is difficult to determine. Undoubtedly as many reading-rooms should be maintained as can be successfully maintained, but even experience does not always indicate where the maximum of efficiency may be secured with a minimum of expenditure; at any rate it does not indicate it with the same clearness to the librarian and to the ambitious department head.

The main reason for this difference of opinion lies in the fact that the librarian cannot, with the funds at his disposal, do all that is asked of him, nor even all that needs to be done, while the department head is in duty bound to ask for all that his department needs immediately or may need in the future, regardless of the needs of other departments. In transforming our department libraries into University libraries, therefore, there is an unfortunate division of interest which we must

do away with. In other words, just as we have recognized that the books must be placed where they will be most useful to those for whom they were primarily purchased, so we must recognize that the increase of these collections and the conditions of their use are questions for the department first of all and only secondarily questions for the librarian. It is the department which should consider, not only the desirability, but the practicability of establishing and maintaining a department library. This will involve study not only of the department's needs but also of its resources. It will mean unification of the department budget.

Each school or department should, I believe, have a separate library budget. This should be considered primarily as a part of the budget of the school, and if a school is not increasing its book collections with sufficient rapidity, or if it is not receiving the grade of library service which it needs, it should in making budget recommendations determine whether the need for more books or better library service is more pressing than that for additions to its staff of instructors or to its equipment in other directions. The history of the library appropriation is too much like that of our federal Rivers and Harbors bill; it is high time that more care should be taken in the preparation of estimates of expenditures and less solicitude shown as to the allotment of expenditures; and it is particularly important that estimates of expenditures for the library should be considered side by side with other estimates of the department, and first of all by the school or the department. In other words, it is more important that the budget of the school or department should be considered as a unit than that the budget of the library should be so considered.

No less necessary to a department library than a properly adjusted income is a department librarian; indeed, the statutes of the University should recognize that there can be no library without a librarian. Department librarians in most Universities are only librarians in name. As a rule, they are either needy students or benevolent but overworked professors. In an institution with few books or few readers this matters little, perhaps, but in an institution with hundreds of thousands of volumes, and thousands of students, there can be no question as to the importance of the office of department librarian, and

no question as to the desirability of securing the best men in the profession to fill these offices.

The general library staff must in the nature of things serve classes of students rather than individuals. The department librarian may discover the needs of the individual and do much to satisfy them. In this respect, indeed, he has opportunities that the instructor himself does not have, particularly opportunities to direct research and answer questions regarding research methods and materials.

The establishment of department libraries with separate budgets and separate library staffs should not, however, be followed by their separation from the general library. There is danger that department libraries may simply reproduce on a smaller scale the organization of the general library, and that department librarians may wish to become mere administrative officers, each with his small retinue of clerical assistants. We must therefore lay strong emphasis upon the fact that these new library officials are not primarily administrators but scholars, and not primarily specialists in library economy, but in other branches of science. Their time must be devoted to the study of the literature of their respective subjects and the needs of the readers in their several departments; the ordering of books, the cataloguing of them, the binding of them, questions of equipment and supplies, etc., must be left to the general library staff. In short, it is only by centralization that we can secure any considerable amount of specialization either in the collections of the department library or in its service.

Control Of University Libraries; Library Committees, Their Membership And Powers

In the organization of University libraries the question of the relations between the general library and the department libraries is closely related to the question of government. In both College and University the President and Trustees are, of course, ultimately responsible for library policies and the allotment of funds with which to carry them out, and ordinarily a library committee of the Board of Trustees is charged with the duty of advising the board with regard to these matters.

In the College these duties are shared by a library committee of the faculty. This committee is a survival from the

days when the librarian was some bookish member of the teaching staff with a pardonable partiality toward his own department; its continuance is only justified by the fact that the librarian is often, too often, a mere clerk. In the larger Colleges and Universities, however, its duties are being transferred to the librarian and his assistants on the one hand, and on the other hand, to the library committees of the several schools of the University.

A library council composed of representatives of the administrative departments of the University library and the department libraries has not, so far as I know, been established in any University. But important steps in that direction have been taken in the inauguration of library staff meetings, and in the appointment of special committees of the staff to consider special questions; and the time is, I believe, not far distant when a body of this kind with well-defined powers will be created in each of our larger and more progressive institutions. Nothing, I am certain, would do more to preserve the unity of the library service than this and, at the same time, give the staff that freedom in its activities, and that power of initiative and control which is essential to efficiency and economy.

Of fundamental importance are the library committees of the several schools of the University. The librarian and his colleagues must in the nature of things determine how the work of the library shall be carried on, but the several faculties of the University and officers of instruction must indicate what work they wish done, and decide what proportion of their expenditures they wish to devote to getting it done. The consideration of these questions in their general aspect must be referred to a committee of each faculty.

In an institution which is growing rapidly either in income or in enrolment, in one in which changes in the library staff are frequent, or in one which can afford only clerical library assistance, such a standing committee is of great importance. Without it the department library is, to use a parliamentary figure of speech, at the mercy either of the committee of the whole, or of even less responsible and sometimes self-appointed special committees. Without it the needs of the school as a whole, the needs of departments, and the needs of classes may often receive less consideration than the wishes of an aggressive or noisy individual.

If, however, these department committees are to be most effective it is important that their limitations be recognized as well as their use. In this place it is sufficient to point out that they cannot advantageously assume the duties of either the department librarian or of the individual department or officer of instruction. They should not be called upon to select books or determine methods of administration. Their chief if not only duty, as I have already indicated, is to define the needs of the department library and indicate their importance as compared with other needs of the school.

What Should Be The Professional Qualification And Academic Status Of Members Of The Library Staff?

The organization of the library and its form of government must affect the standing of members of the library staff. In former years the College depended upon a professor to perform the administrative duties of the library; it still depends upon professors to perform bibliographical duties, and will, perhaps, continue to do so.

But in the University the bibliographical work as well as the administrative work of the library must, I believe, be transferred more and more from the teaching staff to the library staff. There are many reasons for this: the increased mass of books and periodicals, the increasing number of readers and greater devotion to research among University teachers alone make such a differentiation of duties inevitable.

It may be pointed out, moreover, that this change is not only inevitable but desirable. The transfer of bibliographical duties of a higher type is accompanied by a transfer of duties of a clerical and mechanical type which is wholly in the interest of University efficiency and economy. Not only do professors and students receive a higher grade of bibliographical service from bibliographical experts, but the time which is under ordinary conditions wasted in unprofitable bibliographical research is saved for the more advanced work involved in serious investigation.

The importance of the bibliographical services of a bibliographical expert to the University in the development of its book collections, and in the service of readers has been recognized by such educators as President Gilman and President

Harper. Indeed, the former said, "Every person in charge of the University collections must be a student capable of teaching. His specialty must be bibliography, or, if the staff is large, some branch of bibliography, literary, historical, philosophical or scientific, and he must know not only what his collection includes but what it needs." This view will, I am certain, become common, and the bibliographical work of Universities be transferred more and more from the teaching staff to the library staff.

This change must be accompanied by further differentiation between the bibliographical and clerical duties of the library staff, the establishment of higher standards for admission to the bibliographical service than for admission to the clerical service and the extension to bibliographers of privileges and emoluments similar to those enjoyed by other scientists.

Under normal conditions all library officers having academic rank are appointed in the same manner as officers of instruction. Clerical and other assistants are appointed by heads of library departments. Heads of departments are given professorial rank and other bibliographers rank as instructors. The University librarian may have a seat and a vote in the University Council and each department librarian a seat and vote in the faculty of the school which he serves as librarian.

The question of academic status is, however, of less importance than that of requirements for admission to the service and that of opportunities for scientific research for the members of the library staff. Standards of appointment to the several grades in the staff of the library must be made the same as those in the corresponding grades of the staff of instruction. In other words, every member of the general staff of a University library of the bibliographical grade should have had in addition to undergraduate work at least one year's work in a library school, to acquaint him with the technical problems of the library, and every department librarian should have had at least one year's additional work in the subjects represented in the curriculum of the school of which he is librarian to make him more familiar with the literature of these subjects.

Of even greater importance is opportunity for continued study. The time may come when it will seem unwise to expect the same number of hours of office work from bibliographers that we exact from clerks. However that may be, it seems to me

eminently desirable that junior bibliographers should be allowed time each year to pursue one course of study, and that those above the grade of junior bibliographers who wish to attend a summer school or engage in research in library economy in other libraries should be granted the necessary leave of absence, perhaps with half-pay.

The Necessity Of A Scientific Attitude Toward Library Problems

But whatever the requirements for admission to the University library service may be, and whatever the opportunities for bibliographical research in its service, the essential thing is a scientific attitude toward the problems of the library.

It is, I believe, the peculiar duty of the University to encourage a scientific attitude toward library questions as toward other questions, particularly in the library staff. Indeed, among members of the library staff it may not only encourage scientific bibliographical research, it may even require it just as it requires research in other departments of the University, and advancement in the staff may depend as much upon scientific attainments as shown in contributions to professional journals and professional meetings as upon the output of routine work of immediately practical value.

I wish to lay some emphasis upon the importance of this because there seems to me to be a tendency in library work to ignore the fact that the practical problem is only the problem of the one while the scientific problem is the problem of the many, and an inclination to devote our time and thought to routine detail. This is unfortunate, not only for the individual, but also for the institution, and not only for the individual institution but for libraries as a class and for Universities as a class. Indeed the individual librarian suffers less from his isolation than does the institution of which he is librarian; less, too, than does learning at large.

For this reason we must approve the efforts which have been made in the last few years to standardize the library service of Colleges and Professional Schools. The National Association of State Universities Committee on Standards, in 1908, advised that there should be adequate general and department libraries with a sufficient number of duplicate books for purposes of undergraduate instruction, and, when graduate work

is offered, books and other material for purposes of research. The Association of Collegiate Alumnae requires that the number of books in the library of a College seeking admission to the Association and the number of periodicals currently added shall not be less than the average number in institutions of the same type already admitted to membership. The Conference of the Chief State School Officers of the North Central and West Central states held in Salt Lake City in 1910 passed a resolution providing that Colleges having an income of $10,000 and seven departments of instruction should have a library of at least 5,000 volumes selected with reference to College subjects and exclusive of public documents.

The standardization of the library service of Professional Schools has also received consideration. At the meeting of the Association of American Law Schools in 1912 an amendment to its constitution was adopted providing that each school should own a library of not less than 5,000 volumes. And the American Medical Association Council on Medical Education describes the essentials of a medical college library as follows: "The College should have a working medical library to include the more modern text- and reference books and 30 or more leading periodicals and the 'index medicus'; the library room is to be easily accessible to students during all or the greater part of the day; to have suitable tables and chairs; to be properly heated and lighted; and to have an attendant in charge."

The work which these associations have inaugurated should be correlated and carried on from a University point of view, and not merely with the object of determining a minimum of efficiency for the individual institution but also with the object of securing the maximum of efficiency for our institutions of learning as a whole. Our smaller institutions should without doubt have larger resources, but there is even less doubt that our larger institutions should make better use of the resources which they now have.

For this reason nothing seems to me more important at this time than the nationalization of our larger University libraries. I do not mean by this federal appropriations, such as are made to the Colleges of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, or federal supervision, which should properly attend such appropriations, but rather the adoption of the idea of national service instead of that of local service.

This involves in the first place the abandonment of antiquated and provincial restrictions regarding the lending of books and manuscripts, and, secondly, much greater publicity regarding the contents of our libraries. American scholars are, I believe, suffering less today from the poverty of our book collections than they are from restrictions attending their use and lack of information as to what they contain. The German University libraries, with their *Gesamt Katalog* and their liberal system of inter-library loans, are much better organized in this respect. The German scholar has behind him the resources of the nation.

It will not, however, be enough to adopt the most liberal policy with regard to the use of our present resources. It will be necessary to plan also for the largest possible increase in these resources. With this in view nothing is more important than a division of labor between the libraries of the larger institutions. Works of reference, the classics in literature and science, and many current publications, both book and periodical, must be had by every large institution, but the books which are needed by the individual only and by him only once in a lifetime, perhaps, need not and should not be duplicated in our several libraries. This is obviously true of antiquarian books, and it is hardly less true, I believe, of the current issues of the press.

It would be out of the question to consider seriously any such division of labor without careful investigation of existing conditions. Such an investigation must comprehend some of the fundamental questions of University library organization, government and administration such as I have here outlined, but it must comprehend also the questions of minimum standards which have been considered by the several associations of Colleges and Professional Schools, and, finally, the national question of maximum efficiency.

I hope that the idea of such an investigation may commend itself to the members of this Association and that with your approval some such agency as the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching may be able to undertake it, and undertake it immediately.

THE LIBRARY AND THE GRADUATE SCHOOL

Dr. Guy Stanton Ford, as dean of the Graduate School of the University of Minnesota, makes, in this article, an unqualified statement of the necessity of more adequate library facilities for university work.

Dr. Ford was born at Salem, Wisconsin, May 9, 1873. He received his first degree in 1895 at the University of Wisconsin and the degree of Ph.D. in 1903. In the meantime he worked at the University of Berlin from 1899 to 1900 and at Columbia University, 1900 to 1901. He was superintendent of schools at Wisconsin Rapids, Wisconsin, 1895 to 1898; instructor of history, 1901 to 1906, and professor, 1906, at Yale University; professor of modern European history, University of Illinois, 1906 to 1913, and has been professor of history and dean of the Graduate School at the University of Minnesota since 1913. Dr. Ford has also been chairman of the board of editors of the *American Historical Review* since 1921; editor in chief of Compton's Encyclopedia and a contributor to historical periodicals.

If some college administrator should come to me and say, "I have just been given $100,000 for the improvement of my University *as a University*—what shall I do with it?" my unhesitating and immediate answer would be, "Spend it on your library. If you have a library, get more library and make available what you have by a more complete catalogue, by printed special bibliographies, by the editing and reproduction of rare items." And I should adhere to this advice even in the face of claims for the new gymnasium, the administration building, the extension department and the stadium.

To put the matter briefly, without access to adequate library facilities no University is a University, or in other words no

Graduate School is a Graduate School. For the library there is no substitute or counterfeit. Nothing we can hand over the academic counter is "just as good." The new building for entomology, a six hundred thousand dollar chemistry laboratory, a new library building or a materials-testing plant may fill more space in a catalogue, and the student or prospective addition to the faculty may be impressed thereby, but the fact remains that the entomology department may need the *Biologia Centrali Americana* worse than it does floor space, the *Berichte* and *Abhandlungen* of a single learned society may save half the efforts of the chemistry department to do something new, a complete file of Engineering Experiment Bulletins may put half the equipment of the materials-testing laboratory on the scrap heap, and a library building that forces economy in book-buying stands as a melancholy monument of the possibilities it has destroyed. Let no one connected with the promotion of graduate work deceive himself—no single thing is more important in advanced work, that really advances, than the literature of the subject, be it in the sciences, pure and applied, or in the humanities, impure and unapplied.

"Without access to adequate library facilities" was the phrase with which the above paragraph opened. Access and not possession is the point to be stressed. A University might exist in Washington, D.C., without a library of its own, so long as the shelves of the Congressional Library were open to its students; New York and Boston would be noteworthy library centers without the fine collections of Columbia and Harvard.

When it comes to the definition of the word "adequate" one ought to hesitate, but to hesitate would mean a lost opportunity to give discussion a starting-point. What is more important, "hesitation in defining the meaning of adequate library facilities for graduate work" would mean a lost opportunity to set approximate standards. Given a reasonably well-selected library of 100,000 volumes, outside the professional collection for law, medicine and pharmacy, a college of 1,000 to 1,500 undergraduate students may take care of its undergraduate work and expect to furnish the literature for candidates for the Master's degree in ten or a dozen departments, if the buying has been concentrated—a thing rarely done within these limits—in the field of some group such as the biological, the physico-chemical-mathematical or perhaps even the social

sciences or a language group—a claim may be made to carry students farther, even perhaps to the Doctor's degree, in the fields of special library strength. If such a library is not growing at the rate of 5,000 to 10,000 volumes a year, it endangers if it does not forfeit the generous rating given it above. When one speaks of a working library of 200,000 it must be with respect and the admitted possibilities of the Master's degree in many fields and the Doctor's degree in ten or a dozen departments, while recognizing that there can be but mediocrity in the literature of twice as many more. To be even more specific by putting down figures for departments is still more hazardous, but let me venture again: There would be some but not many fields of history, and those limited in time or area for both American and European history, in which a history department with 15,000 volumes at its command could promise to see a Doctorate candidate through to the bitter and better end. Harvard has in the field of the history of several foreign countries more than is here set down for the whole subject of history. A classical department with less than 5,000 volumes would need to have discriminated in its buyings and its selection of subjects if it found dissertation material for a Doctorate candidate. Graduate work in history and the social sciences for the Doctor's degree is possible, of course, but not promising, when the four departments are caring for their constituency of both under-graduates and graduates on less than 30,000 volumes. The major part of a Doctor's dissertation may, of course, be worked out even in departments having and depending upon such an extensive literature as the social sciences within the range of relatively few books, but the dissertation is not the only thing which tests the library. The candidate in a period of one to three years' residence is supposed to be taking work with professors who are themselves consuming literature and needing access to something more than the equipment for a single piece of work in a narrow field by a solitary graduate student. In the sciences the standard may be established with somewhat less emphasis upon collections of what has been published, but with rather more emphasis on the proportion of current literature, periodicals, scientific society publications, etc., received in the field of chemistry, physics, zoölogy or any similar field. What we are here estimating is not the number of books necessary

for a dissertation, but for graduate work. This phase of it is one of interest to our Association, which bases its members, present or prospective, on what they offer to advanced students.

Perhaps enough has been said to emphasize what is or ought to be a commonplace of Graduate-School policy and work, that the library is the one central all-important institution making possible or impossible by its strength or its weakness real University work by students and instructors alike. There is not a Graduate-School dean or instructor who has not seen students leave for institutions with better library facilities than his own or who has not, I hope, sent them elsewhere when the necessity for greater library facilities was vital to the student's further progress. There is no University president who has not seen his faculty gain or lose its strongest members because he could or could not offer the library equipment they must have if they were to be productive scholars.

If any Graduate-School or University official is of the complacent opinion that time will remedy the weak spots in his library, he is blind and deaf to the book market as it is today. Time may be necessary, but it is an expensive element. The number of sets of great works, publications of learned societies, scientific periodicals of long standing not already located in some institutional library is limited. In some cases they may be counted on the fingers of one hand. The German professor with a great library to come on the market at his death replete with long runs of important publications is almost an extinct species. The second-hand book dealers recognize this, even if University officials do not. The growing rarity of great fundamental sets, together with the active buying in recent years by certain American libraries, is putting it beyond the range of possibility for a University library to be a great library if it is not that by the end of the next twenty, perhaps even in the next ten, years. The price of rare and important items is going up annually, or at least as I can testify from experience, biennially, and it is the old story of the Sibylline books. As the years go by the sets are less perfect, less complete, and the price is higher. It will of course always be possible to buy books to the extent of any probable library funds but that may mean only the accumulation of so many volumes, not the making of a library in which you can delve to the bottom of a subject.

With the library, then, of such vital importance to the Graduate School, its policy and administration and the disposition of its funds are matters of perpetual and serious concern to all those members of the faculty who are interested in developing University work.

The Graduate School must have its acknowledged place in the shaping and development of these matters. No single man as librarian can be expected to carry the burden of administering a growing library and to have at the same time a grasp of all the matters of educational interests involved, together with an encyclopedic knowledge of the bibliography of scores of rapidly developing fields of knowledge. If any librarian thought he was capable of all this he should be looked on with suspicion. Happily few modern librarians desire to be the autocrats of all that touches the accumulation and management of the Graduate School's most necessary tools. Most of them welcome and cooperate with the library committees that represent the wider interests of the University in their relation to library policy and administration.

Two things at least are important from the standpoint of the Graduate School in the formation of such committees: the first is that no good-natured complacency should, in a desire to placate all elements, let the committee be made up of representatives *as such* of departments and Colleges. The committee should be small enough for efficiency—seven to nine members—and large enough to secure the necessary points of view of large groups into which University work may be divided. No man should go on it, except he be large enough to see the problems of the library as the problems of the University. Everywhere it is vital to the Graduate School that matters be looked at from the University standpoint and not the purely departmental, or divisional, or College standpoint, and nowhere is this more essential than in the direction of the library.

The second point is that it is desirable that the Graduate School as such have its representative on this committee—not because it is called a school, but because it is the real University and its representative should the more readily see and help the committee to see things from this standpoint. Library committees exist, not necessarily to apportion money, but to study all library matters as they relate to educational policy and to make on that basis any recommendations as to budget or

administration that they can justify on the basis of such study. They will have final power in these matters and should have it only so far as their recommendations are conceived in the University spirit and backed by incontrovertible facts.

When it comes to the work of such a committee in making or recommending the expenditure of funds three things may be suggested to them as of interest in the wise development of the library and, therefore, of advanced work.

The first is the wisdom of putting at the disposal of the Graduate-School administration, without conditions, as generous a sum as is possible. Somewhere in the University there should be a place or a person to whom the hard-pressed individual scholar may go in the name of himself or his advanced student and get the money for the essential books which his share of a department fund may not obtain. If there be any better or more logical educational unit to whom the disposition of such a free, unassigned sum could be intrusted than to the Graduate-School administration, let it be placed there. Its existence and wise disposal is the chief thing in which the University is interested.

The second point is that in the disposition of funds departments doing real graduate work have first claim where there is any margin over the minimum reasonable needs of undergraduate classes. This margin must exist for any University having a Graduate School. It must not be wasted by giving it to the departments which have the most instructors, the most undergraduates, or the most disagreeable dispositions when they do not receive all they ask for or have been receiving by immemorial custom. It is remarkable how near you can come, in a few years, to making a collection of books look like a library if you shake a few stagnant departments out of their hold on considerable sums for books and transfer their expenditure into the care of live departments with an interest in advanced work and therefore feeling the necessity of buying the large, worth-while things.

This suggests the third point of interest to the Graduate School. If the two recommendations just made failed of approval before a library committee, the third would do much to redeem the situation. That is the establishment of what for want of a better term I should call a "sets fund"—a sum for the purchase as occasion may arise of great sets of learned

publications as they may be offered on the market, and their purchase be justified by the personnel of the interested department or by the policy of the University in preparing for future graduate work in the field covered by the purchase. Very many, if not most of these important sets, are too expensive to be taken care of out of the current funds of an interested department. Their use may overlap several departments and yet the delay of getting the cooperation and contributions of departments may cost the University its chance to get what may not come on the market for another five or ten years. A "sets fund" would be a flying squadron to meet such emergencies. It should be rushed in wherever the opportunity was best and the need greatest.

These are some of the ways in which the Graduate School should be given special consideration in the building-up of the library. Passing from the financial phase as a matter of policy to what may be called merely matters of library administration, the interests of graduate work are not less but rather greater than the interests of others in such library matters as cataloguing, exchanges and ordering. A system of cataloguing that separates, on some antiquated classification, literature that should be massed together, sets of single purpose and material of the same character, is more than an annoyance—it is an actual hindrance. To find Domesday Book next to the reports of the city comptroller of New York; works on institutional and constitutional history separated by two stories from the national history to which they belong; Bismarck's works next to John Adams because both are "works of statesmen"; animal psychology next to the herd books of the Animal Husbandry Department—such blunders do more than disturb academic peace of mind.

Any library with a well-developed and efficient exchange department can furnish most encouraging statistics of what may be done in accumulating valuable materials by the proper distribution of the University's own publications. Whole literatures in certain fields may be enriched to the value of much more than the salary of an active exchange librarian. Any efficient librarian appreciates this, but to help him realize the opportunity no force should be more effective than the support of all elements in the University interested in graduate work.

The Graduate School is as much interested as the order or cataloguing department in the library's subscription to the

numerous sets of library cards of possessions and acquisitions being issued by the great libraries of this country and Europe. In the keen hunt for rare or much-needed material upon which the work of some professor or advanced student may depend, the order department and the whole question of buying pass beyond the bounds of an administrative detail of the library. In State Universities the increasing tendency, comprehensible and generally justifiable, to centralize and supervise all expenditures by the state, tends to delay and complicate the ordering of all supplies, especially of books. If a bid on an auction sale has to go from the order department to the comptroller's office and take its place in order of precedence with requisitions for paving material, telephones and chalk, the auction may be a thing of the past before a University bid has untangled itself from the red tape of the clerical routine. In the larger matter of placing orders abroad, great libraries and rapidly growing libraries must in the near future pass from European agents doing a general business to the consideration of the question of maintaining or sending their own agent either alone or in cooperation with other libraries. This has been done and done successfully. The development of the method and its practicability for individual members or groups of members of this Association spending tens of thousands of dollars on books makes in itself a subject for special discussion of prime importance to any institution, especially those whose libraries are just reaching the point where graduate work can be done with their support.

The subject of ordering books is but the mechanical part of the larger phase covered by the policy in buying. The interest of the Graduate School is in the reasonable accessibility of the necessary books. That may be secured for practical purposes when a long run of a rare periodical, a first edition, or a valuable set of source material is in the local city public library or in the library of a neighboring University. At present, too many Universities are buying without due reference to the neighboring collections. Four or five Universities within a radius of a hundred to two hundred miles of each other in both eastern and middle sections are bidding against each other, paying higher and higher prices for rarely used sets to which occasional access is necessary, but sets of which one or two in a section would by the courtesy of inter-library loans supply all needs.

The matter of competing in single purchases as between libraries that should be cooperating is significant of a more expensive competition into which we may be led by imitation or the zeal of departments. I hesitate to name the Universities whose libraries—irrespective of their faculties—furnish "unrivaled facilities for studying western history"; the list of those "strong in the pamphlet and other source material of the French Revolution" is equally extensive. The next decade will see us bidding and building against each other for South American and oriental history, politics and literature—not a selected country or period or phase—but all South America and the whole Orient. All the middle western and perhaps the eastern Universities may have to check influences within and without that would want to make them the greatest centers for the study of the history, literature and institutions of all the countries which have contributed large numbers of immigrants to the tax-paying population of their section. All this means spreading out—horizontal distribution of funds—mediocre results at greatly enhanced expenditure.

Is it wise or necessary or possible for all universities to be all things to all advanced students? Are not the responsibility and the necessity upon most of us to be respectable in our library equipment in all the fields—where the personnel of the faculty justifies work for the Master's degree; to be good in what our location or traditions or special departmental strength justifies and to be the best where all these three combine and make us the logical place where library excellence is to be expected? Should we not make our special treasures immediately available by special bibliographies, by generosity in interlibrary loans, accepting commissions to photograph or copy whenever the demand is made and the expenses paid? Then in those fields where we are wisely and respectably mediocre let us depend upon loans ourselves and send our students on to the greater opportunities that offer elsewhere in the fields where we have determined not to be a claimant for pre-eminence.

This digression from the subject of ordering to the subject of buying leads to what is a more pressing and evident library problem in the waste of funds through intra-University or inter-departmental rivalry and departmental autonomy. The most constant departmental assumption is that books and periodicals bought on its suggestion from University funds become

by storage in seminary rooms, irrespective of use, *their* property. Regents and trustees are constantly doing what they call "establishing new departments." That is they give some new appointee a salary and a title. The literature of his subject as one of the most expensive parts of the equipment is rarely provided for by additions to the library budget. He gets a small assignment from existing funds. Soon the new department is ready to develop graduate work, but it must have, simply *must* have, *constant* access to sets already owned by the University and deposited about the campus in College or departmental libraries. Now most of these new departments are, as sciences, the result of combining certain phases of older sciences, or offshoots of one, or attempts to synthesize the work of several. The new department may therefore comprehend in its necessary literature the fundamental literatures of several disciplines. What is to be done in such cases? Shall other departments stand still in their library progress until the necessary duplication has been accomplished? In a certain sense this has been done in some Universities, and Universities that once had ample funds for strong departments find that for some reason they are still buying books and making no progress as a library. Illustrations of how this works out can be supplied by any librarian or interested University administrator.

The social sciences duplicate the things all need, sociology arrives as the newest of the group and proclaims that nothing that touches man is alien to its interests and its literature; chemistry, physics, mathematics are all interested in the same great society publications; the biological sciences are clear as to their departmental interests, but not as to there being any costly set that should be distinctly available for a sister department; plant pathology or animal ecology if erected into a department can show cause for supplying it with all the literature of the parent sciences, and the colleges of pharmacy, agriculture and engineering are chronically threatened with extinction if they cannot have College libraries of their own, which house and supply at University expense what is a half-block away in the central library or some departmental library. Now the necessity of all this dissipation of funds has enough vigorous defenders, so that I have never felt that they needed my support, and the stronger they make their argument in the name of specialization and advanced work the more uncertain I grow

about their grasp of some of the essentials in the University work of developing specialists who know their specialty because they know it in its relations.

From the standpoint of graduate work and wise expenditure of money in the development of library facilities the departmental distribution of books, as a policy, is a serious disadvantage. The interests of graduate work are, it seems to me, best subserved by a central library where there is available under ordinary circumstances all that the University can offer in library equipment. Secondly, there should be in the various laboratories and departmental study rooms the most needed and constantly used reference works of any special discipline. Thirdly, there may be in it the literature, more limited than departments suppose, which relates solely or primarily to the field in question. I should not hesitate here at justifiable duplication, making the burden of justification heavier when the choice had to be made between a duplication and the possible purchase of that which was nowhere available on the campus and of interest to more than one department. Fourthly, books or sets of too great value to be duplicated or of interest to several departments may be deposited from time to time, as Mr. Johnston has suggested, in departmental libraries.

It would be possible to pass thus from point to point in all that relates to the library and indicate at each point how distinctly, in view of the central position of the library, the interests of the University are involved. The essential thing is that they should be treated as University matters, not the domain of the librarian or the department alone. The most hopeful thing is that the librarian who so regards them is passing. I have never yet worked with a librarian who did not deserve to be called in the best sense a University official, willing to work with other University officials for the common cause. I have never worked with University officials who were not alive to the importance of the library for graduate work. If there be such in places of authority, it is to be hoped for the sake of graduate and College work that they, like the librarian who was a keeper of books and an autocrat on policy, may soon disappear.

Let me restate in conclusion that I have meant to treat the library solely from the standpoint of the University as manifested in the development and maintenance of well-equipped

graduate work; that I have held that this University point of view will find more definite and sustained expression in a University library committee rather than in a library official or series of departmental or College committees. Further it must be evident that the views presented are, in most cases, applicable not to Universities that count their accessible library resources by millions, but rather have I had in mind those Universities who conceal their modesty behind a library just rising into the hundreds of thousands.

INDEXES AND BIBLIOGRAPHIES

The casual reader, the professional student, the librarian and the child have a common dependence upon the catalogue, the index and the bibliography.

What a group of periodical indexes have followed their original ancestor "Poole." Readers of books—other than fiction—no longer have patience with an author who omits an index, and for that matter novels might be indexed to manifest advantage.

Many simple indexes have doubtless come into existence because librarians have adopted the policy of Captain Cuttle and when the elusive fact was found made a note of it.

In *The American Public Library and the Diffusion of Knowledge* Mr. William S. Learned in a few words makes clear the advantages of annotated bibliographical aids. He says:

> Consider further the single case of two lists of books on any subject, one giving solely the title and author, the other including a brief but careful annotation of each with an extract from a competent review. The first sets the reader a very short distance on his way, misleads him perhaps to a detailed treatise when he needed a brief summary, or bores him when he could have been entranced. The other takes the place of a wise and discriminating friend who tells the reader frankly what he may expect, and guides him to material that he can use. Library catalogues are hopelessly and needlessly dumb.

THE INDEX SYMPOSIUM AND ITS MORAL

The editor of *The Library Journal,* during the general discussion of the plan of "Poole's Index," thus commented upon it: "It should be complete in itself, and reasonably full in cross-references, not to dispense with brains, but to economize them."

The Index was the event, the center of all library interest in the year of 1878, and the symposium, to which Mr. Poole refers in the present article, represents the views of leading librarians upon the question of subject-headings.

A sketch of the life of Mr. William Frederick Poole may be found in Volume III of this series, *The Library and Society.*

When I wrote the article which appeared in the May issue of the *Library Journal,* with a red flag for a heading, "The Plan of the New 'Poole's Index,'" instead of my own heading, "Some Suggestions on Indexing Periodicals," I little imagined that its merits or demerits were such as to make it the text for seven elaborate criticisms from as many members of the library profession. This sudden outburst of literature on the subject of indexing periodicals was to me a genuine surprise. For many years the subject has been a pet scheme of my own, on which I have worked almost alone. My best endeavors to interest other librarians in indexing periodical publications have, until recently, met with but little sympathy. Under the inspiring influences of the American Library Association, the work has been taken up by scores of zealous collaborators who are giving it their best energies. These new workers are not only entitled to the privilege of expressing their views as to the manner in which the indexing shall be done, but of having their opinions carefully and impartially considered by the Committee and the editors who have the work in charge. My only regret is that we did not have the benefit of their friendly advice at an earlier date.

The Committee on whom was laid the duty of preparing a scheme of the new Index reported a plan and rules for indexing one year ago. These were freely discussed, and adopted without a dissenting voice, at the meeting of the American Library Association held in New York in September last. I had therefore supposed that the general plan of the new Index was fixed. With this understanding, the work of indexing has been allotted, and much of it has been completed. In the very extended correspondence with librarians who have been willing, under great personal sacrifices, to assume this labor, and with others who were interested in the undertaking, not a line had been addressed to me questioning the principles of the Committee's plan. The only criticisms I had seen or heard of were a strain of vague and anxious comments in the editorial columns of the *Journal,* which favored some plan of classification. An article advocating a systematic or logical classification appeared in the *Journal* three months before the Committee reported, but I have heard of no one in the library profession who seconded the suggestion.

It would be very singular if fifty librarians, who do not agree in the construction of their catalogues, the arrangement of their books or their methods of work, should agree on the details of planning and arranging such an Index. If the enterprise were delayed until these details were settled on a basis which satisfied everybody, we should look in vain for the publication in this century. I am inclined to the opinion that the Library Association took the wisest course in appointing a Committee to consider the plans that might be proposed, and to select what, on the whole, seemed to them to be best. It will, I trust, be no betrayal of official secrets, if I state that up to this time the Committee have worked together with entire harmony, and there is every prospect of harmonious action to the end. I can say for myself, and I trust for Professor Winsor and Mr. Cutter, that the Committee will gladly receive from any quarter suggestions for improving the usefulness of the Index, and will adopt such as seem to be real improvements and compatible with the general plan of the work.

The occasion which suggested the recent symposiac contributions, I conceive to be; (1) The general interest felt in the undertaking, and the desire that the plan and details of the new Index shall be as perfect as possible. Nothing seems so

perfect as that which is exactly adjusted to our own "personal equation." (2) The unfortunate heading given to my article, which made it professedly a full development of the plan, and a challenge for criticism; whereas nothing of the kind was intended by me. It considered only a part of the plan, and was mainly a discussion of the comparative merits of an alphabetical and a classified arrangement, concerning which there now appears to be no disagreement. The reader, taking his cue from the heading, might well exclaim, "Is this all?" and conclude that I had very meagre conceptions of the work undertaken. The heading was the general editor's, and for changing mine for one of his own, he has made a satisfactory apology. (3) Some incidental remarks of mine concerning classification, cross-references and the average intelligence of persons who use such an index, which were understood as implying more than I expressed or intended to express. If I had supposed that my words were to be so critically scanned, I should have written more cautiously, and made myself understood. I doubt whether my meaning would have been missed, had my article appeared under its original heading. In the course of this paper I hope to make myself understood on the matters of classification, cross-references and other topics where my views have been misjudged.

Several of the symposiasts have written as if the details of the old edition were the subject under consideration, rather than the plan of the new edition. The first of the Committee's rules for indexing is this: "The general plan of the edition of 1853 will be followed, except as it is herein modified." In my article appeared this sentence: ". . . but it was believed, if the general plan adopted in the earlier edition, and the new rules were carefully studied, that the practical doubts and difficulties would be reduced to the minimum." The "general plan" here mentioned is one thing, and the execution of the details of that plan, which depends on the knowledge, experience and skill of the indexer, is quite another thing. It was the former that was to be followed, and not the anomalies and imperfections which appear in the latter. The "general plan" of the former edition made it an index of subjects and not of authors; an alphabetical and not a classified index; tales, poetry and plays were placed under their titles and not under their authors; critical notices of the same were placed

under the names of their authors and not under their titles; the name of the writer of the article, when known, was to be put in parentheses, etc. That this "general plan" was imperfectly carried out in the former edition, no one is so conscious of as myself. The work was done thirty years ago, when there was no American Library Association, no *Library Journal,* no "Index Symposium," and when bibliothecal science, in this country at least, was almost unknown. I commenced the work to meet a local want, when I had less than three months of library experience, and with no idea that it would ever be worth printing. I had no one to consult with as to methods, and no model to guide me. For a year or more I plodded on, feeling my way in the dark, frequently throwing aside all I had done and beginning again, and having only such time to give to the work as I could save from my college studies. It is easy for a person in this day, when so much has been written about catalogues, to sit in his stuffed office-chair and write learnedly about indexing; but if he were brought, as I was, to grapple with the perplexing realities of practical indexing, he would doubtless confess, as I did, that he knew but little about it.

After the publication of the first edition in 1848, I again remodelled the scheme and began the work anew; but I had not even then the bibliographical training and experience to carry out consistently the general plan I had constructed. I was content to do as well as I could. "If the preparation of this work," I said in the preface, "had been delayed until a plan had been fixed upon, which reconciled all objections, it would never have been commenced; and if the labor had been continued until the work was satisfactory to myself, it would never have been presented to the public." The many appreciative recognitions of the merits of the work which I have received, and charitable blindness for its faults, have been among the most pleasant incidents of my experience. These kind recognitions, the information I acquired and the consciousness that I had done some honest work which had benefited others, are all the compensation I ever received for my labor. Since then I hope I have learned something of the science of bibliography, and expect now to do better work than I did then.

When attending the Conference of English librarians in London last autumn, I presented a letter of introduction to

Sampson Low, Esq., the venerable compiler and publisher of the "English Catalogue of Books" and their indexes. He received me very cordially and spoke in very earnest and complimentary terms of the value of my Index. "I hear," he said, "that you, with the help of the American librarians, are about to bring out a new edition. Take, my friend, the advice of a man eighty-six years of age, who has spent his life in making catalogues and indexes. Don't change the plan of your Index, or allow your American friends to change it. It is the best that was ever made. I have used the Index ever since it was issued, and am sure the plan cannot be improved, and may be injured." He then ran over the main features of the general plan, comparing them with other systems, and illustrating his meaning from a copy of the Index, which he kept among his working books.

With these general remarks I must hurry on to garner up the lessons of wisdom which constitute the *Moral of the Symposium.*

Mr. Noyes opens the discussion with a plea in favor of the adoption of the scheme which is a compromise between a classified and alphabetical arrangement, and of which he is the author. He would engraft upon the Committee's alphabetical plan, "some element of classification," the limits of which he does not precisely define. He would throw into groups, under a general heading, like Political Economy, the references to subordinate topics, such as free-trade, money, value, banking, finance, currency, etc., with cross-references from each in the alphabetical arrangement. If Political Economy, which alone he mentions, is to be treated in this manner, there is no logical reason why every other department of knowledge should not be treated in the same way, and the result would be practically a classified index, with an alphabetical arrangement of general headings. He would place tales, poems and plays under Fiction, Poetry and Drama. He does not state what other general headings he would make, but we may infer his "personal equation" from the elaborate catalogue of the Brooklyn Library Association, which he has in preparation. In that work he places the lives of persons under Biography, and the history, description, statistics, etc., of nations, cities and towns under Countries. We find the writings of John Quincy Adams under his name in the alphabetical order; but his Memoirs and Diary,

edited by his son, we find under Biography. The catalogues of the Boston Public Library will be found under the general heading Countries, the last heading a person would think of who had not made himself familiar with the plan of the catalogue. Here comes in the practical objection to every classified or semi-classified system in a manual of ready reference. The system must be studied before the manual can be used. Readers who go to it for a specific purpose will not take this trouble, and it ought not to be required of them. A simple alphabetical arrangement requires no preliminary study, and supplemented liberally with cross-references, in my opinion, best meets the average wants of readers and the views of the library profession. The portion of Mr. Noyes's catalogue which I have received, I prize very highly, especially for the many references he gives to the contents of periodicals, miscellanies and collected works. By placing the lives of persons and the names of countries and cities in the alphabetical arrangement, his scheme would be improved even if the general subject-headings were retained. Nobody cares to see a list of the names of persons whose lives have been written; nor, when looking for England under Countries, is one edified by finding "Elizabeth, N. J.," in close juxtaposition.

Mr. Noyes misunderstands my meaning when I stated that "classification is expressly forbidden." I used the word "classification" as meaning an arrangement in classes, in distinction from an alphabetical arrangement—that articles about horses and dogs should not be placed under Natural History or Zoology. He understood me to mean that articles upon "Substitution of Similars" and "Quantification of the Predicate" are to be placed under the most specific heading. This was not my meaning. I should place these articles as he would, under Logic, and should not regard my doing so as an act of classification. Logic is really the subject treated, and is the heading where the articles would naturally be looked for. An article on "Quadratic Equations," I should put under Algebra. If these specific subjects were often treated, and had a recognized literature of their own, they would have their own headings. In the preface of the former edition I stated that my practice was to give an article the heading "under which I supposed the reader would be most likely to look for it." Though my present judgment as to what that heading should be may not

be the same as then, it is a good rule for me to act upon to-day. We cannot do better work than that which our best judgment at the time approves. This may be called "the rule of the thumb"; but it is better than being consistent with some arbitrary rule, and putting the reference where it will not be found. This is what I understand Professor Winsor to mean by "variations to meet palpable convenience."

Mr. Noyes does not understand why the rules require that critical notices and reviews of imaginative writings should be placed under the names of the authors reviewed, while imaginative writings themselves are placed under their titles. It is desirable that the critical reviews of the author's writings should be brought together, that they may be used for investigating the characteristics and literary merits of the author. The writers of imaginative articles in the magazines are generally unknown, and it is well to treat this class of articles, even if the authors are known, as other classes of articles are treated.

Professor Winsor's opinions so nearly accord with my own that there is little for me to say concerning them. "I am firmly," he says, "for an alphabetical arrangement primarily; but with variations to meet palpable convenience. A classified system, or the mongrel alphabetico-classed system, as it is called, is practically a nuisance. . . . It is doubtful if a primarily classed system, with an alphabetical graft upon it, is not a case of confusion worse confounded."

Mr. Perkins writes a pleasant paper full of practical suggestions, which I hope will ripen into fruition under his own hand. He does not press their adoption in the new edition, or intimate that the work will be a failure unless they are adopted. He says: "It is plain enough that my conclusion about the new Index is, that it is to be a great improvement on the previous editions; that it is going to embody much of just what I should have wished to put into it; and that if it could be improved further it would be by adjusting it a little more according to my 'personal equation.'"

Mr. Perkins' suggestions apply as well to the preparation of a dictionary catalogue as to an index of subjects. He would like to see drafted a classification of knowledge—some modification of Brunet's system—as complete as may be, for cataloguing purposes, and which can be used as a chart. In

case the cataloguer is in doubt as to the subject-heading, the chart will decide. The work I am confident would develop into a goodly-sized volume, and would be most helpful in using, as well as constructing, dictionary catalogues and alphabetical indexes. Mr. Perkins is the man of all others to make it. I must tender him my sincere thanks for not suggesting that I ought to do this preliminary work, as if my hands were not already full.

Mr. Whitney makes a plea for a more generous introduction of cross-references than were contained in the former edition, and his views are in accord with those of the Committee and the editors. Mr. Whitney thinks that in the May issue of the *Journal* I spoke of cross-references "with an apparent slight appreciation of their importance," and overrated the intelligence of readers. On these points I perhaps wrote incautiously, and hence was misunderstood. I did not insert the qualifying clauses, or explain fully the idea that was in my mind, not expecting that my words would be so carefully weighed. It is now too late to supply the hiatus, but it is time to say that the editors propose to introduce in the new edition a generous amount of cross-reference—quite enough to satisfy Mr. Whitney—and to make the path of the reader as easy as possible. This plan was decided on at the beginning, and its substance is expressed in the Committee's report. We shall make an entire rearrangement of the matter of the former edition, and shall eliminate many obvious defects in its arrangement. Several English serials, which before were indexed from the American editions, I have reindexed from the original editions. An earnest endeavor is being made to ascertain the writers of anonymous articles, and with much success. After all we do for the reader there is a wide margin left on which he may exercise his intelligence in helping himself. I hope this remark will not be again misunderstood. The full benefits of Professor Abbot's Harvard College Catalogue, that of the Boston Athenæum or of the Brooklyn Library Association, cannot be reached without the exercise of a good deal of intelligence on the part of the reader. I hope it will not be deemed heresy to say as much for the new Index.

Mr. Fletcher's contribution to the symposium was written without consultation with me—as it was not possible in the brief time that was allowed him—and hence expresses his in-

dividual opinions. The numerous points he touched upon in his short article did not give him an opportunity to express his views fully, and hence he, as well as myself, may have been misunderstood. In this discussion I find that our meaning is inferred more from what we do *not* say, than from what we do express. Mr. Fletcher is giving the subject his zealous attention, and as I read his article I understand his opinions to be, as I know his work is, in harmony with the views of the Committee and my own.

Mr. Cutter's contribution is the most elaborate and carefully considered paper in the series. He defends an alphabetical arrangement against all classified systems, because it best meets the wants of nine-tenths of the persons who will use it. A systematically classified index he regards as out of the question. He objects to any radical change in the general plan of the former edition, for "the work would no longer be *Poole's* Index, which is what we undertook to complete." He looks with some favor upon the theoretical merits of two alphabetico-classed systems which have been proposed; but he would like to see the project of their execution tried by somebody else. He would not envy the editor. "I fear," he says, "his choice of classes would not suit anybody, not even himself; and I am sure that those who used the Index would often be perplexed by doubt whether any given subject was subordinated or treated independently." Separate entries under Fiction, Poetry and Drama he regards as of very doubtful expediency.

Retaining the general plan of the old Index, the details ought to be improved. He specifies four defects that ought to be remedied: "(a) the entry of precisely similar subjects under several different heads; (b) the failure, with trifling exceptions, to refer from one of these heads to the other or others; (c) the failure to assist the inquirer by suggesting other headings of a similar character under which a man might find matter to his purpose; (d) the occasional failure to enter in full, or by reference, articles treating of two subjects, or likely to be sought under either of two names, under both of the headings."

If I were to draw up such a bill of exceptions, it would be a longer one than Mr. Cutter's. The man who is to make a perfect catalogue or index is not yet born. While fully admitting the justness of his general criticism on work I did

many years ago, I must question the fitness of the illustrations he gives in his notes (p. 150). He instances, under "(a)," Gardening, Horticulture and Landscape Gardening as "precisely similar subjects;" also Insects and Entomology, Fishes and Ichthyology, etc. Now Gardening and Horticulture are obviously synonyms; but is Landscape Gardening a "precisely similar subject"? I should place the first two under one heading, and make a cross-reference from the other; but Landscape Gardening, "the art of laying out grounds, arranging trees, shrubbery," etc., I should put under a separate heading. I should have the best authority, if I needed any, for so doing, and even for putting these three "precisely similar subjects" under three separate headings. Mr. Cutter, in his Boston Athenæum Catalogue (p. 1103), has Gardening, with thirty-nine titles, and no cross-reference to Horticulture; and on p. 1452 has Horticulture, with sixty-nine titles, and no cross-reference to Gardening. Thirty-seven of the titles under Gardening are repeated in full under Horticulture. To Landscape Gardening he gives a separate heading.

Again, Fishes and Ichthyology are not "precisely similar subjects." They both relate to the same subject—fishes; but the latter is "the science of the systematic arrangement or classification of fishes." Fishes are caught, eaten, talked about and written about without any regard to the science of their structure or their systematic arrangement. There is a propriety in recognizing this distinction, and using in a popular index both terms as headings, with cross-references from one to the other. If only one heading was to be used I should prefer, for our purpose, to use the popular term Fishes, which covers the whole ground, and everybody understands its meaning. Mr. Cutter uses only the scientific term, Ichthyology, as a heading. Fish-breeding, on which there is a good deal of popular literature, he puts under Pisciculture, and fishing under Angling, which is only one kind of fishing. The same principles apply to Animals and Zoology, Birds and Ornithology, Butterflies and Lepidoptera, Insects and Entomology, Shells and Conchology, etc. Even the scientific writers generally prefer to use the popular term in the titles of their books. Thus we have Yarrell's "British Fishes," Gould's "Birds of Europe," Packard's "Guide to the Study of Insects," Humphreys' and Westwood's "Butterflies of Great Britain."

Mr. Bowker's contribution to the Symposium appears in the editorial columns of several late issues of the *Journal.* If he had been a practical librarian he could not have been more interested in the subject under discussion, or more didactic in his style. My paper is already so extended that I will not undertake to review his opinions except in the matter of "Cemeteries," which he has twice brought forward as an illustration of his method of reducing the number of headings. He would treat burial-grounds, cemeteries, churchyards and graveyards as synonyms, and selecting one, say Cemeteries, would place all references to these topics under that heading and make cross-references from the others. If they were strictly synonyms, I might concur in his opinion. But are they synonyms, except in a philological sense? They are all places for the burial of the dead—so are catacombs, crypts, mausoleums, sepulchres and tombs—but are they equivalent and convertible terms? Burial-grounds and graveyards in America are the common or public places of interment, and these terms are used in England when treating sanitary questions, as that relating to intra-mural burial. Churchyard is the English term for the common burial-place. Cemeteries in America are private or corporate places for burial, laid out with a view of developing the best effects of landscape gardening, ornamented with statuary and elaborate sepulchral decorations, of which Mount Auburn, Greenwood, Spring Grove and Rosehill are types. A paper on cemeteries would treat largely of landscape gardening, forestry, sepulchral and decorative art. A paper on a burial-ground in New England would be a genealogical record of inscriptions from tombstones; and one on English churchyards would be made up of curious epitaphs, historical and biographical notes, with a large infusion of sentiment. Practically these terms are related, but are not synonymous. Caroline Southey's "Chapter on Churchyards" and Gray's Elegy would not be improved by changing their titles to "Chapter on Burial-Grounds," and "Elegy written in a Country Graveyard." There can be no valid objection in using for headings such terms as the authors themselves considerately use, and connecting those which are related by cross-references. This is what I understood Mr. Fletcher to mean. The practice of the best cataloguers favors this rule; and Mr. Bowker can find no instance where his rule is carried out in a strictly alphabetical or dictionary

catalogue or index. The Boston Public Library (Bates Hall) Catalogue, 1861, has these headings: (a) Cemeteries; (b) Catacombs; (c) Churchyards; (d) Epitaphs; (e) Monuments; (f) Sepulchral Monuments. It has for cross-references under (a) Catacombs, Churchyards, Sepulchral Monuments; under (b) Cemeteries; under (c) Cemeteries, Sepulchral Monuments; under (d) Boston, Cambridge, Inscriptions, United States; under (e) Sepulchral Monuments; and under (f) Epitaphs, Monuments.

In the first two volumes of Mr. Cutter's catalogue which I have (including the letter H), he has the following headings: (a) Burial, eighteen titles; (b) Cemeteries, two titles, ten addresses (using the term in the limited sense I have attached to it); (c) Churchyards, two titles; (d) Cremation, two titles; (e) Catacombs, nine titles; (f) Epitaphs, ten titles; (g) Funerals, four titles; (h) Graveyards, no titles, but with cross-reference to cemeteries, under which nothing about graveyards appears. His cross-references are as follows: under (a) Cemeteries, Churchyards, Cremation, Funerals, Monuments; under (b) Burial, Catacombs, Churchyards, Epitaphs, Greenwood, Kensal Green, Mount Auburn, Père la Chaise, San Callistro, Woodlawn; under (c) Cemeteries, Funerals, Inscriptions, Monuments; under (d) none; under (e) none; under (f) fourteen, chiefly names of places; and under (g) Anne, daughter of George II, Frederick Henry, Prince of Orange. He has no heading Burial-Grounds, and yet under Boston he has three works descriptive of the "burial grounds" of that city, which are not included or referred to under Cemeteries or any of the above headings, except Epitaphs, where there is a cross-reference to Boston. They are, however, inserted alphabetically under their local names, as "Copp's Hill Burial-Ground," "Granary Burial-Ground," and (I presume, though that portion of the catalogue is not before me), "King's Chapel Burial-Ground."

It is one thing for a cataloguer to make subject-headings from the titles of books, which usually have sharp outlines, and if these do not explain themselves, their meaning can be gathered from the book—and it is something different for the editors to arrange in the best manner the uncertain titles of review and magazine articles which some one else has prepared.

An immense burden of labor and responsibility has been laid upon the editors of the new Index. The confidence and sympathy of the collaborators and of the library profession will lighten this burden. The editors have time to be instructed and encouraged, but have no time for controversy. Professor Winsor, in a letter just received, writes: "The more I see of the work as it goes on here, the more I feel that the task you and Mr. Fletcher have assumed is a great one, and if, with the considerable variation of collaboration which must attend the work, the matter can ever be put into a creditable shape, it will be owing to the skill of the editors."

BIBLIOGRAPHIC EQUIPMENT OF A UNIVERSITY LIBRARY FOR ITS GREATEST EFFICIENCY

The following article is of special professional interest, and was read by the author at a meeting of the New York Library Association, September 27, 1911. Incidentally it will particularly gratify research librarians to read that "The reference librarian is what the straight line is in geometry, the shortest distance between two points."

Mr. Andrew Keogh, former reference librarian and, since 1916, librarian of Yale University, is a native of Newcastle-upon-Tyne, England. He was born November 14, 1869, and was educated at Durham College of Science, receiving the degree of M.A. at Yale University in 1904. From 1892 to 1898 he was reference librarian at Newcastle Public Libraries and from 1899 to 1900 librarian of the Linonian and Brothers Library at Yale.

There is one feature of the science of management that is applicable to every field of activity, namely, the introduction of labor-saving devices, or, to put it in another way, the elimination of wasted energy. My point this afternoon is that bibliographies are labor-saving devices; that they should be provided in a university library as generously as possible; that they should be commonly known, easily accessible and constantly used; and that the result of this provision, knowledge and use will be the accomplishing of given results in literary work with less expenditure of time, strength and money.

The college student is educated in many ways: by the requirements of the curriculum, by his own hard thinking, by his classmates and friends, by the presence of great scholars among the instructors, by the general atmosphere of the place, by training in observation and experiment; but the most im-

portant single means of education is the library. Unfortunately, the earnest student often finds himself bewildered both by the volume and the diversity of the literature which solicits his attention. Edward Everett Hale tells of a young man who was so impressed by his own ignorance that he went to the college librarian and asked him at which end it was customary for students to begin, and yet this was not a foolish question. The most intricate plans for the arrangement of libraries and catalogs have been made in the hope of a solution. For the question is this: By which avenue shall we best enter the domain of knowledge so that in the shortest time we may reach our goal? In a library the student wants the best as quickly as possible. We all know by experience of the hourly and daily waste of time in looking up information. The unskilled reader will often spend hours in vainly searching for what a skilled reader can find in less than five minutes. He has not yet learned that bibliographers are everywhere at work indexing and classifying knowledge, that men may have access to it without unnecessary toil. One aim of a college course should therefore be to get a man into the habit of seeking for and using the best tools. It is in the ability to look up any question that may arise that a student will derive the greatest advantage from his education.

So far as the undergraduate is concerned, the chief bibliographical tool is a good catalog of the library, a catalog that is at once simple and complete. Then there should be provided the printed catalogs of other libraries of importance, the Peabody, Boston Athenæum and so on; the best encyclopedias, not so much for the articles they contain as for the bibliographical footnotes, which to the scholar are often of greater value than the article itself; the best and most modern manuals in all topics, chosen with at least one eye to their bibliographical apparatus; standard guides like the A.L.A. Catalog, the lists of best books issued by the A.L.A. and the New York State Library, Larned's American History and similar A.L.A. publications, the Newark list of novels, the technical lists issued by the Pittsburgh and other libraries, Nelson's Standard Books, Sonnenschein's Best Books, Fortescue's subject index to the British Museum, the A.L.A. index to general literature, magazine and newspaper indexes, lists and indexes of public documents, indexes to reference lists in library bul-

letins and all the other indexes to topics of the day that will help in theme writing or in debate. Books of this sort should be forced upon the attention of the student. They should be shelved in a prominent place and made instantly accessible without formality. There should be instruction by the librarian in the use of books; not a culture course in historical bibliography, but a practical course in the use of the library. There should be constant personal guidance of the student in the use of the books and catalogs, wherever possible the inquirer being shown how an answer is found, so that next time he may help himself. There should be instruction by the professors as well as by the librarian. This, in fact, is the only way in which satisfactory results can be attained. In Yale a course is given every year in the history department, which practically every freshman is required to take. If he does not take it in the freshman year he is required to take it in the sophomore year. It is regularly a three-hour course, running through the whole college year, and at least one-third of it is purely bibliographical in nature. Every man is required to compile bibliographies, which are criticized in individual personal interviews with the instructors. A prize of twenty-five dollars is awarded every year to the student who compiles the best bibliography, and these bibliographies are in many cases comparable to those issued by libraries. Such a course will do much for the student. It will, at any rate, compel the freshman to see the library. He will learn the use of catalogs and indexes; he will have to handle a considerable number of books. With the best men there are excellent results. The chief aim of the course is the training of the student in methodical habits of work and in the independent use of books.

The need and use of bibliographical equipment reaches its maximum in the professional and graduate schools. A graduate school is not merely a place for the teaching of students, but for the advancement of science. "The graduate" says Lane, "is a man who undertakes to follow up some new line of inquiry, to establish relations between certain facts not hitherto studied in connection with it, and to draw fresh conclusions from what he learns." He wishes to lay his finger quickly on any fact he may need to examine, and he needs every modern bibliographical help. The undergraduate gets much of his bibliographical advice orally, from his instructors, but the graduate

student must often work out his own salvation. In his minor subjects the needs of the graduate student are similar to those of the undergraduate, the chief difference being that his search is more intensive, and his loss of time and energy more costly. In his major subject of study, however, bibliographies have two additional functions. They serve, first, as a preliminary survey of the field. He who can begin with a good bibliography will there find the whole field mapped out and subdivided. He will get a just view of the relations between his field and others, and between the subordinate parts of his own field, and while following the paths that most attract him he will be saved from narrowness of outlook. In the second place, bibliographies serve to indicate the part of a field of knowledge that remains untilled. The nonexistence of literature on a subject is an invitation to the scholar. It is in defining the boundaries of knowledge and determining the starting point of research, that bibliography serves its highest purpose. It follows that for graduate study the library should provide all the modern bibliographies in existence. Bibliographies for the undergraduate may, as a rule, be limited to those in English, but the graduate takes no heed of language. He requires foreign encyclopedias; indexes to foreign periodicals; the printed catalogs of the large libraries, as the Library of Congress, the British Museum, the Bibliothèque Nationale; catalogs of special libraries or collections like the Ticknor Spanish catalog, the Avery Architecture catalog, the Cornell Dante catalog, the Surgeon General's index; all union lists of periodicals; lists of special collections; lists of and indexes to transactions of learned societies; all the analyticals published, either on cards like the A.L.A. and the Concilium, or in books like the Index Medicus, and the International Catalogue of Scientific Literature; the Grundrisse and other bibliographically annotated textbooks in all topics; the Jahresberichte; the current periodicals that make a specialty of book reviews; lists and indexes to dissertations and similar academical writings; and the host of special bibliographies, of which Chevalier, Potthast, Molinier, Gross and Larned are specimens from the field of history. Nor will it be forgotten that some of the catalogs of auctions and of the better class of dealers are excellent bibliographical tools.

The graduate student, like the undergraduate, fails to make sufficient use of bibliographies largely because they are unknown

to him or at least unfamiliar. Perhaps you will remember Mr. Hodges's story, how for seventy-five years there had been published in Berlin a catalog and index of technical literature, and yet he had never come across a single scientific man who knew of its existence. There should be distinct instruction, in every course of graduate or professional work, in the bibliography of the subject. The librarian cannot properly teach in the professional school, unless he has himself mastered some particular science. Yet there is a bibliographical field which is his by right, either because it is not covered by the curriculum, or because it overlaps the boundaries of particular disciplines and is therefore neglected by all. He may, for instance, give instruction in general reference books; in trade bibliographies, both domestic and foreign; the means of getting at book reviews; the whereabouts of special collections; the classification and cataloging of libraries, especially his own; the taking and filing of notes and references; the compilation of bibliographies; the preparing and printing of theses; the law of copyright. All these are properly within his province. But it is to the professor that one must look for instruction in the bibliography of particular subjects. At the beginning of every graduate or professional course there should be an introductory lecture or series of lectures on the encyclopedia, methodology and bibliography of the subject, followed by required work of a bibliographical nature until the student acquires a working familiarity with the tools in his field.

Bibliographies are absolutely necessary for the working of the library and its departments. One of their chief uses, for instance, is in the accession department, in the buying of books. No library can have all the books on a subject, and the smaller the library the greater the need of selecting the best. A critical bibliography is the best working basis in building up a new collection or in discovering and remedying deficiencies in an old one. Some bibliographies are especially helpful because they suggest books for first purchase or for small libraries. Bibliographies of all kinds are necessary in checking lists of recommendations received from members of the faculty or student body, for such lists often fail to give important particulars and are sometimes inaccurate. There may be other and better editions than those suggested, in which both the matter and the treatment may have been altered. One often needs

bibliographical descriptions, after a book is received, to help in collating it properly, to see whether the text is complete and whether the plates and maps are all there. One may have to determine market prices, to know when to buy and when to wait, and at what price to sell duplicates. In the accession department one needs all the trade bibliographies, including naturally Auction Records; Book Prices Current; second-hand catalogs, especially those related to a particular topic, carefully filed and indexed; the Book Review Digest and the similar German index. It will be found in practice that a library even well equipped with bibliographies will sometimes fail in its search for information and will have to depend upon book sellers and specialists who are better provided with bibliographies than the library itself.

Then again consider the catalog department. The proper classification of a book, the assignment of the precise subject heading, the mere identification of the author or the determination of the date of publication, may involve references to a dozen authorities. As for the more unusual problems of the cataloger, the handling of papyri and later manuscripts, the listing of incunabula and other rare books, the calendaring of documents, the entering of maps and charts, the identification of early texts, or modern translations published under different titles—each of these requires bibliographical apparatus of its own, in addition to the ordinary reference resources of the library. Scholarly accuracy, which is surely the first requisite in cataloging, often depends therefore upon bibliographical equipment, and speed, which is the business side of cataloging, is equally dependent. No one, whatever his talents, attainments and industry, can work with the rapidity which the public expects. He cannot produce a given output within a specified time, as one can produce coal from a pit or iron from a furnace. Yet the object of cataloging is a definite one. There is a certain book, a certain shelf of books, a certain class or a certain library to be classified and cataloged, and the library committee should see to it that progress is not hindered by lack of necessary bibliographical tools.

Bibliography finds its highest efficiency only when interpreted by the reference librarian, who corrects and supplements all the deficiencies and inadequacies of the catalog and classification by his own trained, interested and effective service. The refer-

ence librarian is what the straight line is in geometry, the shortest distance between two points. I shall not, to this audience, argue the necessity of proper bibliographical equipment for the reference librarian. To him bibliography is the light of day, the breath of life. His efficiency can rarely be greater than the bibliographical resources at his command. With proper equipment, he can do more work with less effort, and in the doing can help others to acquire whatever special skill he may himself possess. In imparting his skill and his enthusiasm he is fulfilling in the highest degree the aim of the university. The fruit of a liberal education is not learning, but the capacity and desire to learn; not knowledge, but power.

THE PROFESSION OF RESEARCH

Professional research develops a zest for widely distributed information but requires a background of altruism. This standard has been termed, by one who is truly destined for such work, a "religion of service"—religion, be it said, without solemnity or cant.

The element of altruism has saved many a librarian from the pitfalls of dilettantism. Too frequently, however, the lot of a research worker allows but occasional glimpses of the promised land of pleasurable reading, reading for the other fellow taking its place.

Individuality fortunately removes all danger of encyclopedic attainments—rather the tendency is toward specialization in tempting directions or at least toward the elimination, when possible, of subjects distasteful.

One reward of the reference worker is seldom elaborated—a compensation bearing thorns at certain seasons—the intimate association with humanity. Generally speaking this is an intercourse productive of humorous situations, introductions to new avenues of interest, and friendships.

A SUGGESTED PLAN FOR SPECIALIZATION IN REFERENCE WORK

Miss Nella J. Martin, of the University of California Library, in a paper, presented at the College and Reference Section of the Conference of the American Library Association, held at Seattle, Washington, in 1925, makes a plea that opportunities for special study and research should be granted members of the library staff. The paper by Mr. Carlton, to which Miss Martin refers, follows her own; the one by Dr. William Dawson Johnston will be found in this volume, with others devoted to University libraries.

Miss Martin is a West Virginian by birth, a graduate of the University of West Virginia in 1904 and of Drexel Institute Library School in 1907. She served in the Library of Congress, Classification Division in 1907-1913 and in the University of California Library in 1913-1928, being instructor in cataloging and classification in the Library School in 1918-1921 and later first assistant in the reference department. Since 1928 she has been on the staff of the Library of Congress, Catalogue Division.

In preparing this paper I had before me two addresses which in brief form contain the most interesting and stimulating discussion of library work that I have ever read. One is called *Compensations of the Reference Librarian,* and was delivered by W. N. C. Carlton at the Saratoga Springs conference of the American Library Association, and the other is entitled *The Library as a University Factor,* a paper presented on behalf of Columbia University by W. Dawson Johnston at the fifteenth annual conference of the Association of American Universities held at the University of Illinois ten years ago.

The first deals with what the librarian gets out of his work, and the second with what he puts into it. Together they are an excellent demonstration of axiom number one—things

that are equal to the same thing are equal to each other. My first reaction on reading *Compensations of the Reference Librarian* was a fine glow of pride and a feeling of deep satisfaction with the station to which the Lord had seen fit to call me. Then I read it again and began to make applications and I wondered how many of us were living even approximately up to the full measure of our opportunities, or whether in all cases there was an opportunity for the sort of development which so richly compensates, and if there was not what was to be done about it. Mr. Carlton says:

> Properly conceived, the post has enormous possibilities of intellectual enrichment and valuable public service. With the passage of years there should come to its holder the reading command of half a dozen foreign languages with all that this means in the way of opening up new worlds of thought and horizons of beauty. The daily use of the great bibliographies, source books, comprehensive surveys and encyclopedias of hundreds of different subjects will fix firmly in mind the grand divisions of human knowledge, the determining facts and events in man's history and progress from the earliest ages and the names and significance of all the great world figures whose personalities and influence have made history the tragic but glorious thing that it is. To have become a master of the tools of research and the possessor of the keys of knowledge in many and varied fields—surely here is reward and compensation for one who truly loves learning and takes a passionate delight in satisfying a widely ranging intellectual curiosity.

The average college reference librarian upon his entry into the profession has a reading knowledge of perhaps three languages—probably Latin, German and French. He should be able through his own efforts and by a careful adjustment of his hours to those of the schedule of classes in his college, to add to these Spanish and Italian. Unaided he will more than likely gain enough acquaintance with Russian, Polish, Dutch, Scandinavian, et cetera, to enable him to decipher a reference or a title page, but I question the extent of the "worlds of thought and horizons of beauty" that will be opened up to him thereby. He will undoubtedly become familiar with the "tools of research and the possessor of the keys of knowledge in many and varied fields," but in too many cases the pressure of the day's work will oblige him to remain always outside the gates which he opens for others. But unless he himself investigates those fields, how can he be sure to open the right gate? And furthermore, how can he maintain his position at the gate and

at the same time achieve the next step described in the address, the intensive cultivation of a special field of knowledge of his own? This is the problem which is before us for solution for it is my earnest belief that the cultivation of a special field of knowledge by the librarian is the one thing that will contribute more than all else to the advancement of librarianship as a profession. The librarian must be able to meet the scholars whom he assists on equal terms, and while there is undeniably a thrill to be derived from becoming an "invisible but real contributor" in their work, that in itself is not sufficient, he should make from time to time some independent contributions to the sum of human knowledge.

It is not often that an individual who has successfully made a special study of some particular subject takes up library work as a profession, partly because the salaries and hours do not attract him, and partly because he is unwilling at that stage to undertake the training necessary to make him a successful librarian. It remains therefore for the individual with a good general education as a basis, plus library training, to enter the special field and to the extent of his ability and opportunity make himself master of that field, its content as well as its bibliography. This would seem to be a perfectly normal development. The librarian has the entire field of knowledge before him as perhaps the member of no other profession has, and although he cannot hope to do what is apparently expected of him, encompass the whole of it, there is every reason why he should make some portion of it his own, and library work should be so organized that this continued study is an integral part of it.

In the second paper, Mr. Johnston, quoting Daniel Coit Gilman says:

> Every person in charge of the University collections should be a student capable of teaching. His specialty must be bibliography, or if the staff is large, some branch of bibliography, literary, historical, philosophical or scientific, and he must know not only what his collection includes but what it needs.

Realizing that the librarian does not emerge from the library school full panoplied with all this intellectual equipment, Mr. Johnston proceeds to emphasize the importance of continued study. He says:

> The time may come when it will seem unwise to expect the same hours of office work from bibliographers that we exact

from clerks. However that may be, it seems eminently desirable that junior bibliographers should be allowed time each year to pursue one course of study, and that those above the grade of junior bibliographers who wish to attend a summer school or engage in research in library economy in other libraries should be granted the necessary leave of absence, perhaps with half pay.

The time is coming, I venture to assert, when public libraries as well as college libraries will not only deem it eminently desirable for the members of their staff to pursue courses of study to some definite end, but will expect if not require it of them. Public schools expect it of their teachers and colleges demand it of instructors. The library is just as truly a teaching institution as the public school or the college, the same funds go to the support of it and it is no more to be expected that a librarian can make satisfactory progress through the daily performance alone of his duties than can the instructor. Of course there are some bridges to be crossed before we reach this point, chief among which is the matter of time for study. But even now some libraries allow members of their staff time for attending classes provided that the assistant gives of his own free hours time for the preparation of the work of the course. Would it not be in keeping with the aims of the College and Reference Section of the American Library Association to recommend that every library assume the same enlightened attitude toward the continued education of its staff? And further, supposing that the assistant wished to take a full term's work, or to do some piece of research in another library, might it not be possible, if at the end of eighteen months he had saved up the six weeks of vacation accruing to him in that period and was willing to devote his time to that purpose, might it not be possible to the library to give him an additional six weeks, thereby making an uninterrupted term's work possible? Always of course with the provisions that the nature and quality of the proposed work meet with the approval of the proper authorities, and that arrangement be made far enough in advance to guard against embarrassment in library schedules.

Of course this is a matter which in most cases would go beyond the college librarian and rest with the college authorities, and since there seems to lie deeply imbedded in the consciousness of most college administrators the idea that the

librarian like the stenographer requires only practice for improvement, not realizing that the same reasoning might apply with equal accuracy to the instructor, our greatest difficulty lies just there. But I am fain to believe that somewhere there is a college forward-looking enough to be willing to make the experiment if its librarian and library staff will agree upon a well-worked-out plan and present it with a clear statement of the need for its adoption and with sufficient faith in its efficacy to carry it over the discouragement with which it is almost certain to be greeted the first three or four times.

And here we come to a second difficulty almost if not quite equal to the first, and that is indifference among librarians themselves. This indifference, however, I believe to be more apparent than real. For many years the term library assistant has been loosely applied to every one employed with the walls of a library—no distinction whatever being made between trained bibliographers and the pages who shelve the books—and for some reason difficult to explain college authorities have chosen to lump them all under the general classification of clerical assistant and grant them the same status and privileges accorded to stenographers and typists whose educational qualifications rarely exceed high school. I truly believe that whatever indifference may exist is in many cases bred of despair and will become a more and more negligible factor when the efforts of the Board of Education for Librarianship begin to take effect and the library profession is recruited from library schools with steadily rising standards of educational qualifications and professional possibilities, and when in the case of the library assistant as with the instructor, advancement after a certain point depends on his individual efforts; when it becomes possible for the senior assistant to cross that line concerning which it is now written "thus far shalt thou come and no farther."

COMPENSATIONS OF REFERENCE WORK

The delights of achievement and learning, according to Mr. Carlton, are the only rewards which may be confidently expected in reference work. He places upon all who choose this branch of library service the obligation of a high standard of culture and a delight in knowledge for its own sake.

William Newnham Chattin Carlton was born at Gillingham, England, June 29, 1873. Coming to America in 1882 he was educated at the schools of Holyoke, Massachusetts, and under private instructors. As an assistant in the Holyoke Public Library 1887 to 1890, he began his profession as a librarian; from 1892 to 1899 he was assistant librarian at the Watkinson Library of Reference, in Hartford, Connecticut; librarian of Trinity College at Hartford from 1899 to 1909; librarian of the Newberry Library, Chicago, 1909 to 1919; director of the American Library in Paris, 1920 to 1921; acting librarian of the Public Library of Hamilton, Ontario, from 1921 to 1922; and has been librarian of Williams College, Williamstown, Massachusetts, since 1922. Mr. Carlton has written a number of books and has edited several works, notably the *Poems and letters of Lord Byron,* and he has contributed many articles to magazines.

The subject of this paper is the most difficult and elusive that has ever been assigned me, and what I have to say is presented with hesitation and diffidence.

Obviously, the word "compensation" is here used in its broad popular sense, almost as a synonym of "reward." The dictionary defines "reward" as a gift, prize or recompense for merit, service or achievement, and taken literally implies something tangible or of a material character.

Now I am reasonably sure that many reference librarians feel that there are few, if any, material rewards or compensations attached to their positions. Take, for instance, the matter of salary, for which the word compensation is often used. Some excellent reference librarians may justifiably feel a sense of hurt when comparing their financial compensation either absolutely or relatively with that of chief catalogers or the heads of libraries. Indeed, I have a suspicion that a reference librarian suggested this subject to President Jennings with the ironical request that a library administrator be asked to discuss it. Well, I shall frankly dodge the issue of inequality of compensation as between reference librarians and the heads of other departments of our common work. And, in addition, I propose to dismiss from consideration the whole matter of material compensations, of tangible rewards, and the physical satisfactions of one sort or another that may, fairly or unfairly, be regarded as compensations. For, broadly speaking, there are no material compensations of any size or consequence in any field of library labor and endeavor. But, in this respect, we do but share the fate and fortune of all other men and women whose vocations lie primarily in the spiritual, cultural and educational service of mankind—the clergyman, the teacher, the missionary and the social worker. To me, it seems crystal clear that our compensations must be sought and found solely in the sphere of the intangible; and that our successive or enduring rewards and satisfactions are wholly subjective and personal, not objective or worldly.

What a man gets out of his life-work depends largely upon what has attracted him to it, what his prevailing attitude is towards it, and what he puts into it as a personal contribution. His compensations are, I believe, a wholly personal and intimate thing; they will differ in nature and kind from those of other men just as he differs in personality and interests from other individuals of his race and time. One cannot speak, therefore, for anyone but oneself on this matter, but I think I know fairly well what the compensations are which I should have sought and in various measure should certainly have found had it been possible for me to devote myself exclusively to reference librarianship.

In that fine essay of his, entitled On a Certain Blindness in Human Beings, William James says: "Our judgments con-

cerning the worth of things, big or little, depend on the *feelings* that the things arouse in us. If we were radically feelingless, and if ideas were the only things our minds could entertain, we should lose all our likes and dislikes at a stroke, and be unable to point to any one situation or experience in life more valuable or significant than any other. Wherever a process of life communicates an eagerness to him who lives it, there the life becomes genuinely significant." A man should, therefore, be very sure of his feelings toward the actualities and potentialities of reference work. He must find in it personal joy and happiness, and it must give him intellectual and moral satisfactions and the sense of growth and achievement. If these things are lacking, his work has no genuine significance and his life is as useless as a still standing tree from whose roots the living sap has forever departed.

First on the list of the compensations I should expect in reference librarianship is the satisfying of a thirst for knowledge. To my mind the most enviable kind of life and career that history records is that of the great scholars of the Renaissance and the century or two succeeding it: Erasmus, Melanchthon, Casaubon, Lepsius, Joseph Justus Scaliger, etc., men who seemed to take all knowledge for their province and nearly compassed it. To my mind, the ideal life is one of continuous self-education, of ceaseless search for truth and knowledge. The almost savage joy of the miser at the sight of his golden hoard is as nothing compared to the passionate thrill the lover of learning feels as his stores of ordered knowledge grow within him and his ability to use and apply them expands and increases. "The Hospital," said Dr. Abernethy, "is the only proper college in which to rear a true disciple of Aesculapius," and where, I may ask, is there a fitter place to rear true scholars than in a great library? And where again, within the library, is there a finer opportunity to become a true and great scholar than in the position of reference librarian? Properly conceived, the post has enormous possibilities of intellectual enrichment and valuable public service.

With the passage of the years there should come to its holder the reading command of half a dozen foreign languages with all that this means in the way of opening up new worlds of thought and horizons of beauty. The daily use of the great bibliographies, source books, comprehensive surveys and ency-

clopedias of hundreds of different subjects will fix firmly in mind the grand divisions of human knowledge, the determining facts and events in man's history and progress from the earliest ages and the names and significance of all the great world figures whose personalities and influence have made that history the tragic but glorious thing it is. To have become a master of the tools of research and the possessor of the keys to knowledge in many and varied fields—surely here is reward and compensation for one who truly loves learning and takes a passionate delight in satisfying a widely ranging intellectual curiosity.

In addition to this personal interest in universal knowledge, the true reference librarian will, of course, want to cultivate a special field of scholarship of his own. For this is but carrying out in detail the Platonic education of after life. On this matter, he may safely follow the advice given by Jowett in one of his introductions to Plato: that he shall choose the branch of knowledge to which his own mind most distinctly inclines, and in which he takes the greatest delight, either one which seems to connect with his own daily employment, or, perhaps, furnishes the greatest contrast to it. He may study from the speculative side the profession in which he is engaged. He may make Homer, Dante, Shakespeare, Plato, Bacon, the friends and companions of his life. He may select for inquiry some point of history, or some unexplained phenomenon of nature. An hour a day passed in such scientific or literary pursuits will furnish as many facts as the memory can retain—and will give him a pleasure not to be repented of.

But there is a further reason why the reference librarian must have such a specialty and cultivate it intensively. To be competent to aid scholars intelligently and further their researches in his collections, he must know at least as well as they do the technique and methods of learned research. Self-respect and pride in his own calling both demand that he meet them on equal terms. He and they must speak a common language and be conscious of a genuine community of interest. From time to time, he should contribute special papers to the learned journals; this will establish his right to claim true fellowship with professional scholars, enhance the repute of the library he serves, and raise in public esteem the vocation he has chosen. Day by day, he will be in contact with men and

women who are creating new knowledge or reshaping and reassembling old. He will watch and share in the preparation of the finished product of their labors which, in the form of learned monographs, systematic treatises, popular narratives or summaries, lectures, sermons, magazine or newspaper articles, goes forth to the world to do its work and exercise its influence on the thought, the passions, the prejudices or the aspirations of the day. In his capacity of invisible but real contributor to all this, is there not a thrill of emotional adventure, a sense of actively participating in the intellectual life of his time? And is this not a very real compensation, something which cancels many hours of routine drudgery and the exasperations of petty detail?

This joy in learning, this progressive increase in knowledge, this direct participation in the work of those who, through spoken or printed words, are molding the thought of the time, all prepare for the lead up to what is perhaps the most important function of the reference librarian, namely, his rôle of teacher. This conference has been built up around the central theme of adult education. Underlying it is the thought of the public library as an instrument and means of continuing or supplementing the educational processes of school and college. And this is an absolutely true concept of the major purpose of the modern library. Now where in the library organization is the natural center of its educational and teaching activities? My answer is, the Reference Department. The head of this division and his assistants are just as surely a teaching staff for the public as the faculty of a college is for the students. They operate in different ways, the external scene and machinery of their work differ, but essentially their function is the same. To them falls the duty and responsibility of teaching men and women how to use books accurately and effectively; what books are best and why they are best or better than others; how to determine where probable truth may be found when so-called authorities differ; how to distinguish between material that is obsolete and that which is alive and valid; how to find facts and methods and systems immediately wanted for vocational purposes and personal needs; how to plan courses of private reading and study; giving counsel and instruction in right methods of study. In sum, the reference staff reveals books as sources of exact knowledge and cultural inspiration

and relates this knowledge and inspiration to the everyday lives of men and women who are seeking better weapons wherewith to fight the battle of life, higher standards by which to work and to live, truer ideals by which to be guided, or richer food on which their souls and minds may be nourished. So again I say the reference librarian is, or should be, the generating force and the actual director of the teaching, the directly educational activities and processes carried on by his institution. And, assuming as we rightly may, that a high measure of success crowns his work as teacher, has he not the compensation of feeling and knowing that he has rendered a public service of the first order? His contribution to the state is fully equal to that of the honest journalist, the unselfish public official, the devoted clergyman, the sanitary engineer who saves a city from a devastating epidemic and the thousands of his nameless, unknown colleagues in schools and colleges who have spent themselves in preparing the youth of the land for their first entrance upon life and responsible citizenship. Because he brings to his work the feeling of keen interest, of anticipation of achievement and of belief in its social worth, the reference librarian need never know the barrenness and ignobleness of the life of the mere laborer or doer of a routine task—and this is indeed high compensation. Happiness in one's work is the very essence of success, and every man or woman who feels the inner call or urge towards reference librarianship may be assured of success and many compensations if he will but remain true to high ideals of scholarship and disinterested service for his fellow-men and women.

Therefore, I give it as my opinion that reference work does possess many and fine compensations of a non-material character. Whoever enters upon it with enthusiam, with the resolve to grow steadily in breadth of knowledge and the power to use this knowledge fruitfully, will be certain to have the compensations of successful personal achievement, of scholarly repute, the thrill of responsibility, the pleasure of doing what one likes best, a community of interest with other scholars and teachers and the sense of having contributed directly to constructive social progress, the welfare of the state and the general intellectual progress of the time.

LIBRARIANSHIP AS A PROFESSION IN COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES

Mr. Judson Toll Jennings, then reference librarian of Iowa State College, in this paper discusses the whole subject of recognition of librarianship as a profession which would give librarians the same status as instructors in the university. He reviews all of the factors which have hitherto entered into the question and barred the librarian.

In Volume VII of this series, *The Library and Its Workers,* a sketch of Mr. Jennings has been given.

A *profession* is defined in our dictionaries as "a calling that involves a liberal education," "an occupation involving special discipline," "a calling in which one professes to have acquired some special knowledge to be used in instructing, guiding or advising others, or of serving them in some art." All of these definitions of a profession show that it involves standards of attainment which determine one's fitness to enter the ranks, as was the case even when theology, law and medicine were the only recognized professions.

That librarianship be recognized as a profession, with standards that put it on a level with related professions, is a goal which every earnest librarian hopes to see reached. How far we now are from such a goal is shown by the meaningless title, "librarian." This word may be used as a general term including all persons engaged in library work, or it may mean the head of a great organization; it may connote high scholarship and great service to a community or even to the whole nation; but it may also be applied to a person with very limited education whose chief recommendation to a place in library work was the need of a genteel job. This lack of definite standards is the most serious obstacle to a recognized library profession.

In college and university libraries, however, there is a standard by which we may measure ourselves, and here we should expect to see the library staff solving the professional problem. Working side by side with college teachers, whose status has slowly crystallized into a certain recognized order, we realize the shortcomings and the disadvantages of our standing—or lack of standing.

In the older universities and the larger colleges very few new men receive appointments to professorships who have not already the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. In some universities practically no instructors are appointed who do not already have a doctor's degree, or who are not well on the way toward that degree. This is not an iron clad rule, or should not be, as it would be a calamity if the men of special genius who have not received the stamp of the educational mill should therefore be lost to the service of higher education. It should always be remembered that the degree is but the stamp and not the coin—"the man's the gold for a' that." But, in general, the degree marks a standard of scholarship and endeavor which, in connection with teaching ability, sets this man above his fellow of equal ability minus the higher training which the degree denotes.

In the smaller colleges and in some universities the higher degrees are not demanded for entering the ranks of college teachers. Many instructors have the master's degree, some only the bachelor's degree. Of these latter the larger number are in professional schools, of law, medicine, home economics, etc., for which special technical training is required beyond, or in connection with, that of the usual course leading to the bachelor's degree.

There is one great factor, however, that is noted in every rank of the college and university teaching force; every one is expected to be alive and growing, every one is encouraged to advance in his line. If he does not progress he is soon a "back number" in his profession. The young instructor who has not his advanced degree is urged to work toward it. "We shall tell him that if he expects to be really valuable, he must not stop with the bachelor's degree, but he must do much in addition and do it so well that he will inevitably and in good time achieve the doctorate."* Summer school courses are

* Eugene Davenport: The outlook for agricultural science. Science: v. 45, p. 149, Feb. 16, 1917.

planned to meet his needs. Most universities which hold summer sessions definitely offer certain credits toward advanced degrees for work done in the summer school. And the long vacation granted to the teacher gives him the coveted opportunity for higher study. Thus the incentive of advancement in position and salary, the allowance of time for undisturbed study, and the opportunity afforded by summer schools are a trinity of inspiration to achievement.

If the higher degrees have already been earned the professor is expected, by scholarly research and original investigation, to keep on growing. He is expected to publish the results of such work, a tangible witness to his activity. For this purpose the hours of teaching are limited and long vacations are granted, with the sabbatical year as a special occasion for the renewal of vigor and a special opportunity for advanced study.

This is the spirit of the organization of the teaching profession. The staff of the library of such an institution should be the equal of the public it serves, both in obligation and opportunity—indeed it must be, if it also is to rank as a profession equally worthy and dignified.

But what is the professional standing of the library staff in the college and university community? In the past forty years the librarian's position has advanced in dignity, in importance, in salary. In place of the custodian of books with his mind buried in the dusty dimness of the past, the present librarian is recognized as the head of one of the most important college departments, an administrator, an executive. He is responsible for the use of large sums of money for books and salaries, and for the organization of a worthy staff. He is justly on a par with heads of departments and recognized as their equal in faculty and committees. Therefore he must be a scholar, a man of wide culture. He attends the meetings of the national, state and local societies of his profession, and is expected to contribute something to its literature.

Such should be, and in many cases is the status of the librarian, measured by the same standards as his teaching colleagues. But what about the remainder of the library staff? With the exception of a possible assistant librarian they are usually considered "mere clerks," as is shown by their salaries,

their hours of work and the attitude of their superiors toward granting them opportunities for advancement.

Why is this?

These assistants in college and university libraries are almost invariably college graduates with one or two years of training in library schools, or with some years of service in libraries. This training might put them on a level of scholarship with most of the young instructors in the small colleges. It could hardly be claimed that one year in a library school is equivalent to the year's study for the master's degree, since the library school work is not the continuation of a special line of study already well developed. Perhaps we might fairly assume that a two-year course in a library school, highly technical tho it is, adds as much to one's attainment as the usual one year of graduate study required for the master's degree.

These enthusiastic young workers start out in the service of the college brimming over with library spirit and zeal, feeling themselves, both in their preparation and in the service they render to the institution, fairly on a level with the young teachers starting at the same time and in the same college in the instructor's ranks.

At the end of, say, seven years the young instructor may be well on the way toward his doctorate, having worked toward that end in summer schools; and now the sabbatical leave gives golden leisure to attain the coveted degree. Equipped with the majesty of the Ph.D. and supposing him to be a successful teacher, he will then stand a fair chance of being called to a position of higher rank and salary either in the institution which he has been serving or in another.

At the end of seven years the library assistant is usually not far advanced in scholarship, in rank or in salary from where he began. Perhaps by good fortune he may have reached the head of order, of cataloging or of reference department. But the salary received is very meager, generally a third less than that of his teaching colleague.

Why has not the library assistant advanced? Why is he not ready to take even a master's degree? (We are considering now the average, not the exceptional, type of either instructor or library worker.) The chief reasons are lack of opportunity, lack of incentive, lack of encouragement from the "man higher up."

The lack of opportunity for advance in scholarship is one of the greatest drawbacks to entering the library profession as now organized. The long day, the short vacation and no sabbatical opportunity limit the young librarian at a time when his mind should be most active—when daily work shows most clearly his weak points and the need of strengthening his armor if he is to win in the battle.

But it may be objected that there is no need of advanced scholarship for catalogers, classifiers or reference librarians. Only absolute ignorance of what such work demands in training, knowledge and judgment could allow such an objection to be considered.

The conscientious reference librarian knows that every particle of knowledge is an asset in his service. He knows that to be thoroly acquainted with one subject in all its branches would be a background which would help in searching out knowledge in many lines for his public. In under-graduate work it is almost impossible to get such a grasp of any one subject. Along with the day's work of a busy reference librarian these attainments are impossible. The nature of the work is such that one leads others to fountains of which one may not stop to drink. What reference librarian does not constantly feel himself skating over the thin ice of his own knowledge, often feeling it crack beneath him and sometimes giving way to plunge him into the chilly waters of ignorance below? And with what longing he looks for an opportunity to broaden and strengthen the foundations of his knowledge, especially along the economic and historic lines.

And the cataloger and classifier! How many regard them as mere copyists daintily handling clean, fresh books, leisurely absorbing their thrilling contents, and then handing them on to the waiting throng, after typing a simple name and title on a fair white card. "I should think anybody could catalog any book in ten minutes," remarked one shocked trustee when the services of an extra cataloger were asked for. Let anyone who has tried it answer. What a feeling of utter helplessness comes over one when confronted with piles of books in unknown tongues, with pamphlets on all the ramifications of modern science, with treatises on the subtleties of philosophy or a thesis on some untraceable medieval poet. Like the sightseers on the rim of a canyon who cling to the branches of the

stunted trees, lest a gust of wind dash them down into the chasm, so the conscientious classifier and cataloger cling to the branches of their frail tree of knowledge, dreading in each new arrival of books the blow that may plunge them into the depths of the unknown. And was there ever a professor or librarian who was not shocked beyond—well, *not* beyond words, to express his amazement at finding a mistake in the catalog! He has never learned by experience the sorrowful truth here misquoted, "If any man hath a conceit of accuracy, and would have it completely taken out of him, let him print a catalogue!"

We do not advocate that library workers should attempt to become superficially omniscient. Superficiality is the bane of the library world. The superficial smattering of several languages, for example, is a necessity to be deplored. To study one or two subjects thoroly, as must be done to attain the higher academic degrees, is to have at least one secure and well stored "base of operations," and adds immeasurably to one's power and efficiency in many lines. One foreign language well mastered furnishes a key to others; one science whose principles are thoroly familiar gives a foundation for intelligent judgment in others. Every line of study and investigation followed out into all its branches leads the student into understanding contact with many other subjects in the wide field of knowledge.

We do not for a moment forget the splendid work which has been done in the library world by men and women who have not had advanced college training. Their earnest work makes our own progress not only possible but imperative. Each generation of workers must be better equipped to enable them to meet the higher demands which will be made upon them. They cannot advance unless they are better prepared than were their predecessors.

For this reason the workers in the college library need more thoro knowledge; they need advanced work in special lines, and they will be better workers for it. Why can they not have vacations long enough to allow the pursuit of some needed subject in the summer school? In addition to the wealth of studies offered for advanced work, the demand would lead to the establishment of courses especially designed for librarians. For example, courses in the bibliography of great epochs in history and in the history and bibliography of the various

sciences, are now given during the regular year's work of the best universities. Such courses, by men who are authorities in these subjects, might be given in the summer schools. This intensive work in the bibliographies of important subjects is one of the great needs in progressive library work. This need is not met by the technical library school, possibly because only the experienced worker is prepared to profit by such instruction.

There are also many cases where more thoro knowledge in special lines is imperative if the best work is to be done. Perhaps the cataloger needs, on account of the awakening interest in our southern neighbors, a better knowledge of Spanish than could be squeezed into her under-graduate course; or she needs to add to her classics a course in medieval Latin as a help toward cataloging a collection of manuscripts; the classifier is called upon to work with a valuable collection in some science of special interest in her college days: why not an advanced course at the best summer school in the country? The reference librarian who has been snatching a few crumbs while serving others all the college year, needs and deserves a chance to sit down to the feast himself—to get at the foundations of the great economic and political changes. Why can't they do it? "Because libraries can't afford it," is the answer. "It is absolutely impossible. It would bankrupt the institution."

It does not bankrupt the institution to allow the teachers the summer vacations. Why shouldn't provision be made for those of the library staff who are eager to study?

One reason is that books keep coming all summer and students do not. But the situation could be met exactly as it is in most summer schools—by providing extra help during that period. Certainly it would cost money, but that money would be repaid with interest in brain power, in ambition, in incentive to higher endeavor, in more efficient service to the library. Allowing time in the summer for those who wish seriously to study in some line which will benefit their work is only to the self-interest of the library.

Why do not librarians advocate this opportunity for their assistants who show desire for improvement? There are three reasons: First of all, the librarian is under constant pressure to keep down the cost of the library service. Trustees and executive committees can see the force of arguments for buying books. Books are permanent, valuable; they last. But, having

books, why do you need anything else? The service necessary to make the books usable is intangible. Its value is not physically self-evident as is the book itself. The service is not once rendered and done; it must be repeated day after day, year after year. "Isn't the catalog done yet?" is the perennial demand of the trustee who knows nothing of the routine of a library. Now, the librarian's success is largely measured by how much he can get for his small appropriation, and he may be more influenced by this than he is himself aware. He may crowd his workers with more than they can do well and thus reduce their efficiency. If more work is demanded than the force at hand can do properly, either the work or the force suffers, or both suffer.

The librarian's position is a hard one. He dreads the mortification of having his recommendations "turned down." He wishes to avoid the loss of prestige with his board that would follow if they should get into the habit of slighting his requests—as they surely will if they suspect him of exceeding his necessary budget. He must be able to convince the finance committee that every penny asked for will be a "paying" investment. However much he may have the welfare of the library at heart, it takes courage to say frankly to the board of trustees or an executive committee, "I cannot run the library on the money you allow me and do it well." Even if he has excellent reasons to support his contention, some board members may not understand the need. There is always the possibility of the reply, "Well, if you can't do it, we'll get some one that can."

On the other hand the trustees, who are the guardians of the college treasury, must be constantly on the watch against extravagant demands from every department of the institution. "The *lack* of money is the root of all evil," must be the sentiment of many a harassed college trustee.

But all this does not relieve the librarian of his responsibility. By accepting that position he assumes its responsibilities, and one of the greatest of these is to fight for fair play for those beneath him in rank. The man higher up always, by that very position, has a power over and a duty toward his subordinates. He should try to make their standard high and then give them a chance to advance to it. "To employ anybody without offering him a chance and training for promotion is a biological

blunder, a financial waste and a moral crime."* It is just as much a duty to give the man lower down a chance as it is to see that the funds of the university are wisely used. In fact, to give the man lower down a chance to improve *is* to see that part of the university funds are wisely used.

A second reason why the librarian does not ask for more opportunity for his assistants is that he has a rather poor opinion of them, simply because he has seen their faulty beginnings. He knows so well their failings and mistakes that he gets to feel that they are really not of the same mental caliber as himself—forgetting (as who does not!) what manner of man he was at the same stage in his career.

How many librarians are inspirers of their assistants? How many are there who watch for opportunities for their assistants to work ahead? Who encourage a faltering ambition? Who urge them to perfect and publish the paper or bibliography which might be made worthy? One unusually successful young librarian said, "When I was working in the university library I had a call to a better paying position in a small place. The librarian advised me against it; he urged the advantage of contact with a great collection of books, which we had; he urged me to work on bibliographies; to publish even small articles; and to do this I must have access to the best books. His advice and his inspiration saved me from years of labor in a small library, where all my strength would have been used up in mere routine, where there would have been neither incentive nor opportunity for study." Happy is the assistant who is associated with such a chief.

On the other hand, how many young library assistants lose their first fresh enthusiasm and settle down to work along contentedly, happily occupied with activities which lead to no high goal, utterly unconscious that the opportunities open only to youth are fast slipping by. If the awakening comes too late, many are the bitter, if silent, reproaches against those in authority, older and experienced, who must have seen and understood, but who were too indifferent, too selfish or too timid to warn the satisfied workers of their danger. Fate weaves no tragedies more bitter than those wrought by the happy ignorance of youth, because none could more easily have been avoided and none are so absolutely irreparable. The librarian who allows

* E. E. Purinton. What makes a factory great? *Independent*. Feb. 19, 1917.

the members of his staff to become satisfied with themselves is doing them a great injury.

Not every assistant will answer the call to "come up higher" in the profession. In spite of the best efforts of the best librarian, some member of the staff may be too indifferent, too lazy, too much interested in outside affairs, too incompetent, or too complacently conceited to respond. The fire of enthusiasm cannot kindle a responsive flame in the petrified wood among the library staff, if such be there. But the live and vigorous members should not therefore be dwarfed and stunted. They should be given chance and encouragement to grow.

The third reason for lack of opportunity for advancement is that probably 90 per cent of the library assistants are women, and women are still at a great economic disadvantage when compared with men. Probably the librarian would say that their lack of professional stability is reason enough for lack of encouragement to higher attainment. This is (or was) an undoubted drawback, but it is one which is growing steadily less. Women are taking a deeper interest in, and a more serious attitude toward, their industrial position. Indeed, that position is becoming more vital every year as industrial competition becomes keener. Therefore this objection is a factor of diminishing value. But even when long and distinguished service would seem to entitle the woman library worker to equal consideration with her male colleague she is almost invariably assigned to a lower rank and salary than a man of even smaller ability would have in doing the same work. The injustice of this is manifest to every fair mind—at least, to every fair feminine mind.

The classifiers and the catalogers are not mere artisans. If they live up to their profession, they are creative workers, they are artists. Witness the catalogs which we have inherited from bibliographers of the past, who had *time;* witness also such work as the catalogs of the Dante and Petrarch collections of Cornell University Library. Not that ceaseless drudgery can be eliminated; but for this very reason the breathing spell, the time for renewal of energy, the opportunity for refreshing the brain are so vitally necessary. Otherwise the power of originality will be crushed by the weight of routine, the artist will be sunk in the artisan. We have already seen how widespread, even among educators and librarians, is the belief that

thoro scholarship is not needed for this part of library work. All a cataloger needs to know of a foreign language is enough to use the grammar and the dictionary. All a reference librarian needs to know is where to find certain books, and he can grind out knowledge as the organ grinder plays his tunes.

A young instructor in mathematics once wrote to a well-known professor, an unusually successful teacher, asking, "What are the three fundamental pedagogical principles in the teaching of geometry?"

The answer was, "First: Know your subject.

"Second: Know your subject.

"Third: Know your subject."

And in library work scholarship, thoro scholarship, is needed. The whole trend of the day's work is toward superficiality. The cataloger and classifier learn to skim thru books; the reference librarian is forever prospecting for knowledge, but the other party digs out the gold.

For this reason we advocate, as the next step toward the professional goal, the opportunity to attend summer schools of high standing in addition to at least a part of vacation, and without loss of pay. It will pay the library in the quickened brain and habit of thoroness. And if anyone of the staff is anxious to use his vacation for this purpose, the allowance of extra time will not be a hardship to those who do not so desire to study. It would be an incentive to all the staff. The library could easily protect itself from exploitation by granting this privilege only when the course of study to be taken should be of a quantity and quality to meet the approval of the library authorities. A certificate of good work would determine whether the favor was to be granted again.

The advance toward a recognized professional standing for librarians must first be attained in the highest of its ranks; then only can we hope to extend such recognition. This highest rank of scholarship, together with a standard for measurement, is generally found in the college and university libraries. There the librarian, and his staff, may be roughly compared with heads of departments, professors, assistant professors and instructors. In order to attain equal rank, the members of the library force must equal their teaching colleagues in scholarship and in productivity along their special lines. For such attainments opportunities should be open to them, giving the library workers

a chance at least partly commensurate with that of the teaching force. They should be given the incentive of a salary in keeping with their attainments.

Upon whom then chiefly depends the next step toward the recognition of librarianship as a profession? Upon the present college or university librarian who has "arrived" at the head of a scholarly calling, whose power as mediator before the board of trustees or library committee may be used to convince them of the needs of his human equipment as well as the needs of his material equipment. He may urge upon his board that investment in living brain power is just as necessary as the investment in brain power stored between the covers of a book; and that money so invested returns a high interest in efficiency. For no factor in efficiency can equal that of the consciousness of power to advance, with the assurance of the opportunity for such advancement and the hope of a fair reward.

HOW TO STUDY REFERENCE BOOKS

Miss Martha Conner, instructor of reference work in the Carnegie Library School, has contributed to *The Library Journal* an interesting, logical and practical outline of the mental processes required in reference analyses. This study was extensively reviewed in *School and Society,* February 4, 1928, by Professor Werrett Wallace Charters, of the University of Chicago, in an article entitled *College Preparation for Reference Work.* Professor Charters concludes with the following recommendations:

1. As a preparation for reference work, a student should, in general, specialize in those fields which he enjoys the most. The supply of trained librarians in proportion to the demand is such that a trained person who actively seeks the opportunity may eventually secure a position in any one of the major fields embraced in the Dewey classification. Obviously, if one specializes narrowly, he must wait longer to secure just the position he wants than he otherwise would.

2. If a student has no preference as to fields, his first choice may well be the social sciences, including, roughly, history, sociology, political science and economics.

3. His succeeding preferences should be either the physical sciences, the biological sciences and the technology group as one unit, or the fine arts and literature as another unit.

4. For all around training as a general reference librarian he should have acquaintance with the six groups—300, 500, 600, 700, 800, 900.

5. An outstanding characteristic of reference work today is the rapid increase of opportunities in many narrow specialized fields, and the consequent growing demand for reference librarians who in effect are research directors and who are even more intensively trained than now. To become an expert in reference work in a narrow field he should thoroughly specialize in that field.

6. The prospective reference librarian should make it his chief object in studying his selected college courses to learn the vocabulary, the problems and the trends of research in the field. He should take such orientation, overview or synoptic courses as are offered in the institution.

Miss Conner was born near Berwick, Pennsylvania, and is a graduate of the Drexel Institute Library School, and of Pennsylvania State College, having received B.A. and M.A. degrees. She has been librarian of the Bloomsburg, Pennsylvania, State Normal School, assistant librarian and instructor in bibliography in Pennsylvania State College, and librarian of the University of Tennessee, and is now instructor in reference work, bibliography and the history of libraries in the Carnegie Library School, Pittsburgh.

One of the fundamental courses in a library school curriculum is the reference course, for ability to do reference work is necessary in order to pursue satisfactorily any other subject. Also some reference work is required in every library position. The reference course necessarily begins with a study of those books which are especially compiled and arranged to find facts easily, and which are ordinarily termed reference books. Since there are many of these books and a limited time in which to become familiar with them, an efficient method of study greatly adds to the effectiveness of the course.

Study* has been defined as "the forcing of the mental processes along new pathways, the forcing of the nerve impulses thru groups of perhaps thousands of neurones where they have not been exactly before."[1] Study signifies the ability to direct one's mental energies effectively in carrying thru to successful completion some reasonable undertaking. Skill in study is the power of effective, independent self-direction. Study entails voluntary attention which should grow to absorption as increasing interest stimulates.

The learning cycle is stimulation, assimilation, reaction.

* Grateful acknowledgment for guidance in this study is made to Dr. Q. A. W. Rohrbach of the School of Education of the University of Pittsburgh.

[1] Dearborn, George Van N. How to Learn Easily. Boston. Little. 1916. p. 14.

Some motive has prompted the student to enter the library school, so that the stimulus of the wish to learn is presumably present. The presentation of the subject in teaching furnishes further stimulus. No real learning takes place without that emotional condition which we call interest, and which may or may not be associated with pleasure, for it frequently arouses willingness to endure toil and hardship. Interest establishes motivation or desire to learn, which must be sustained and increased as the learning process proceeds, even to absorption. If learning has its own initial appeal, motivation will take care of itself.[2]

The reference course will be self-motivating to students with much intellectual curiosity, to others it will not be so appealing. But students will have to realize that in the library profession, as in all professions, there are duties which are not initially interesting, and that they will have to acquire the ability to apply themselves to learning which in itself is not interesting. A motivation founded on a sense of duty only may, as the learner progresses and the subject develops, become an absorbing interest. Students who have learned this will eventually develop a sustained motivation.

Assimilation carries thru the process of study and recitation. "Effective assimilation and learning to study are related. Opportunity for assimilation is opportunity for study, and effective guidance in assimilation is training in the art of study."[3] Reaction takes place in the solving of reference problems by the use of reference tools.

"Each type of teaching has its own method of study, and the mission of the teacher is to put the student in effective control of the methods peculiar to that type. Pupils should know how to study, have developed in them the inclination to attack their environment thru study and be capable of formulating their own problems and of studying at the level of self-independence."[4]

The teaching of reference work is of the science type of teaching for its objectives are adjustments in the form of

[2] Morrison, H. C. *Practice of Teaching in the Elementary Schools.* Chicago. University Press. 1926. Chap. 7.

[3] Morrison, H. C. *Practice of Teaching in the Elementary Schools.* Chap. 16.

[4] Morrison, H. C. *Practice of Teaching in the Elementary Schools.* Chap. 10.

principles or processes in the relation of cause and effect.[5] The learning process is reflection upon experience. The teacher presents the reference problem and provides the material for its solution in the form of reference books. By the process of examination and reflection upon this experience, the solution of the problem is found.

As each type of teaching has its own learning process so each subject has its own variation of the type to which it belongs. There are no general rules for the study of all subjects, tho there are elements common to many. Nearly all of the treatises on study include methods for acquiring right reading habits. Since the ability to read rapidly and with understanding is necessary in all effective study, this is one of the elements common to the study of all subjects.

The products of learning are either adjustments in the form of understanding, or appreciation, or special abilities, or skills. An understanding of the principles of economics and finance, for instance, changes a man's whole attitude towards the business world, and appreciation of beauty in color and form increases his joy in nature.

Special abilities are found in the performance of music, in dancing, in the use of languages. "Skill is nearly synonymous with facility. When a pupil has attained a given adjustment, with all that implies, he has frequently to go on acquiring certain skills in the application of his new attitude or ability to the situations which call for its use. . . . Skill seems to consist largely in the facility with which the individual identifies the elements of the situations which are subject to interpretation in terms of the new attitude." [6]

The chief product of learning in an elementary reference course is an adjustment in the form of an understanding of the use of reference tools, such as periodical indexes, dictionaries, bibliographies and encyclopedias of special subjects especially compiled and arranged to find information quickly. Such tools are now available for so many subjects that a knowledge of their existence and facility in their use makes it easy to find facts which otherwise would consume much time in search. Reference books are the backbone of an elementary

[5] Morrison, H. C. *Practice of Teaching in the Elementary Schools.* p. 89.

[6] Morrison, H. C. *Practice of Teaching in the Elementary Schools.* p. 20.

reference course. All other resources of the library must be available, but the beginner must first know these tools and how to use them. Without a knowledge of periodical indexes, finding a certain article in a magazine, when the magazine is not known, would be like the proverbial search for a needle in a haystack. A person ignorant of periodical indexes has an attitude of bewilderment in the presence of the great mass of that form of literature. Give this same person training in the use of the indexes and he has made an adaptation which entirely changes his attitude towards the periodical world, for he knows that now he can find any particular article, or articles, on a subject quickly.

As the average college student you have done most of your reference work by the trial and failure method, which has frequently resulted in failure. Perhaps you have learned to get the varieties of information from the encyclopedias; rarely have you mastered the English dictionaries; and whole groups of reference books remain unexplored.

When you enter the library school or training class, you leave the academic study world behind and take an entirely new schedule of professional studies which require new techniques of study. All thru your previous school career one course has led naturally and logically to another; arithmetic to algebra, algebra to geometry, geometry to trigonometry, and thence to higher mathematics. The study of English grammar prepared the way for the study of other languages, and this study of languages led naturally to the study of their literatures. But for the study of reference books as such you may have no experimental background. Since we learn the new in terms of the concepts already acquired, your very first process will be to make all possible associations of the new ideas with your past experience. Most of all you will need to associate the facts about reference books with their use. You will recall many instances in your college courses where you could have used these individual books if you had known about them. It will be wasted energy for you to memorize the fact that *Poole's Index to Periodical Literature* covers the nineteenth century unless the fact is so associated that it will be quickly recalled when someone asks you to find magazine articles published during the Civil War. As you note the time the index covers think of some of the many important events of

the century and of some of the things you would like to know about these events which are sure to be included in the periodicals of the period. To know that *Brewer's World's Best Essays,* has a title index will avail you nothing unless you can recall that fact when you are asked who wrote an essay, *The Rise of the Moustache.*

At first the study of reference books may seem purely a task of memorizing a mass of authors, titles, dates, scope and arrangement. But do not be discouraged if your progress is slow at first. The law of initial diffuse movements operates in any new learning process. Time is required to coordinate movements to focus upon a single accomplishment. Remember how slow your progress was in learning to swim. At first you struggled frantically using all the muscles of your body, even to making a wry face, but you went down just the same if the water was deep. You kept on trying and gradually your movements were coordinated and one fine day you found that you could swim across the tank without conscious struggle. If you do not know this principle of initial diffuse movements you may become discouraged and not realize that the thing to do is to keep on trying until you get coordination which is sure to come to him who persists. In the study of reference books you will need to memorize many authors, titles, dates and varieties of arrangement, but these are not pitfalls and stumbling blocks for your downfall, but a part of your equipment, and the teacher will show you how so to relate and associate them with their subjects that your memory will retain them.

Gradually you will begin to think of reference books in groups covering special subjects and how they complement and supplement each other. The aim of the course will be kept clearly before you by the teacher. In the presentation the teacher will point out the fact that you must think first of the subject as a whole, and then of how the reference books cover the subject. Take history, for instance. Some reference books do cover universal history, but obviously one work cannot do this adequately and comprehensively so we have supplementary works on various subdivisions and special topics, as the history of special periods such as the mediaeval, or historic movements as the renaissance, or of events as the Massacre of St. Bartholomew's Eve, or of a country as the United States,

or of battles or dates. With the history group must be associated the reference books on biography, geography and periodicals, tho these books were studied in separate units. A clear analysis of the subject will help the association of the individual books of the group with their use and thus make learning easier and recall certain. Then when you come to study *Harper's Cyclopedia of United States History,* your first impression will be sharply delimited to United States history, biography, etc., for you will see how it fills a need in the general subject history, and supplements the reference books on universal history by being more comprehensive for this particular country.

When you get this idea clearly in mind the books presented will naturally associate themselves with their use. Their study will be a matter of understanding and not of the pure practice type of learning. In fact if you do memorize titles for recitation or examination in that way it will avail you nothing because they have not the proper association for recall and you will not recognize situations which require their use.

Definite instruction as to what to look for in reference books is given you under the headings, authority, scope, arrangement, physical make up and bibliography. One thing which greatly adds to facility in the use of reference books is their arrangement. The following methods are employed according to the variety of material and the purpose used; (1) alphabetic, (2) classified, (3) regional, (4) tabular, (5) chronological. The alphabetic arrangement is easiest to use and will be found in a majority of books, but some types of material do not lend themselves to this arrangement, e.g., statistics which are most useful in a tabular form, or atlases where the arrangement is regional.

To find specific subjects in any other than alphabetic arrangement, there must be an alphabetic index or indexes. Get this clearly in mind and it solves the arrangement problem, for when you pick up a book with non-alphabetic arrangement you will naturally look for indexes and lists. It is always wise to look for special tables, indexes and lists in any reference book, even tho it has alphabetic arrangement. *Heitman's Historical Register of the Officers of the Continental Army in the War of the Revolution,* for example, is arranged alphabetically but it has useful tables of campaigns and battles, lists of

French officers, etc., which cannot be found thru the alphabetic arrangement.

There is always some protest against learning exact "titles." This means that the protestant is a lesson learner and has not mastered the work so that it has become an adjustment in the form of an understanding. The first time you read a title pause and think it over and form associations with the subject For example in the "title," *Thomas. Universal Pronouncing Dictionary of Biography and Mythology,* you see that its three outstanding features are given. (1) Say to yourself that it includes universal biography, such as Plato, Caesar, Milton, Jonathan Edwards and Woodrow Wilson. Look up one of these names and note the amount of material given, whether there are portraits, and bibliography. (2) It is pronouncing. You remember not being sure of the pronunciation of Denis Diderot when you saw the name for the first time yesterday, so you look it up and note the method of indicating pronunciation. (3) It includes mythology as well as biography. Look up Perseus and make observations as preceding. You will then have many associations with that one title and thus many contacts for recall. Before the next lesson practice recall by going over the lesson.

Another illustration is the *Encyclopedia of Religion and Ethics.* Note that it covers all religions and look up one in which you are interested to see how fully it is treated. Then associate ethics with religion and look up an ethical movement; do this for personages and places connected with religion, for religious sects and for ethical systems. In this way you will have formed associations with its content and may have also acquired a visual concept which will help you to recall the exact title.

When you are assigned a group of reference books on a subject, say history, with a problem consisting of specific questions to be answered from these books think of the classification of that subject, as given previously, and of the necessity for being able to find information on all its phases. Read over the list of books assigned, with the notes in your textbook, and associate each book with its specific subject, and note how completely the group covers the whole subject. Next read over the questions of your assignment one of which may be: What were the causes of the Peloponnesian War? You

at once classify this as ancient history of Greece. Now look over the list of books assigned for one which covers ancient history. There is none on this specific subject so you conclude you must use a book on universal history which is one of the group. Note the title on your problem sheet. The next question might be, What battlefield was called the "Field of the Cloth of Gold?" You see that this is an allusion and will probably not be included in the encyclopedias of history so you look over your notes for a book including allusions, and find Brewer's *Historic Notebook*. Do this for every question, then try out your conclusion by consulting the books themselves. If you do not find the information, your knowledge of the book or your judgment was wrong. Repeat the whole process until you succeed. Associate each book with the type of information it contains and note its arrangement for this adds facility in use. Think of where and how you found the fact and not of the fact itself. The tendency at first is to get interested in the particular thing you are trying to find and to forget the main object of the search which is a knowledge of reference books. Think constantly of where and how you found the information and not of the specific fact itself. Remember that it is the ability to find similar information which you are to acquire.

When you have finished finding all the questions of the assignment and have examined all the books, take time to think over the whole group of books again and relate them to their particular field of knowledge. Review again before the recitation if you possibly can. Repetition is an assistance to memory. Use your newly acquired adjustment on every occasion, discuss it with your fellow students.

This same procedure you will use in doing practical reference work at the desk. When you are asked to find information on a specific subject you will advantageously follow some such procedure as the following. 1. Consider the general class of knowledge to which this specific topic belongs. 2. Recall reference books in this class and think of their special features and limitations. 3. Reserve judgment until the book which most nearly covers this specific subject is found. 4. Decide on the book which seems most likely to contain what you want. 5. Try out your conclusion by consulting the book. 6. If your judgment or knowledge were at fault, and the information is not there, repeat the whole process until you succeed. Never

give up the search until you have exhausted all possibilities and resources. 7. If the reference books in the class do not contain the information examine the whole body of literature on the subject. 8. As a final resource consult a specialist who may be in your community, or direct the patron to another library where he may get what he wants.

You have attained skill in reference work when you have so mastered its tools that you readily identify the book to be used to meet each situation. In a one year course you will have studied about a small number of the reference books you will need to know in a large reference department. It will be your pleasure to go on studying reference books during the whole of your professional career, for the books you have studied this year will sooner or later be superseded by better ones. What you should get out of this course is the ability to grasp quickly the especial value of any reference book and to carry on independent thinking in reference work. Speed is desirable but skill is gained only by much practice which cannot be given in a one year course. You should work slowly and very accurately at first gaining new knowledge from every operation. Then when you are sure of your technique, consciously work faster, but never let speed interfere with accuracy. Skill will finally be attained if you work intelligently and persistently.

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